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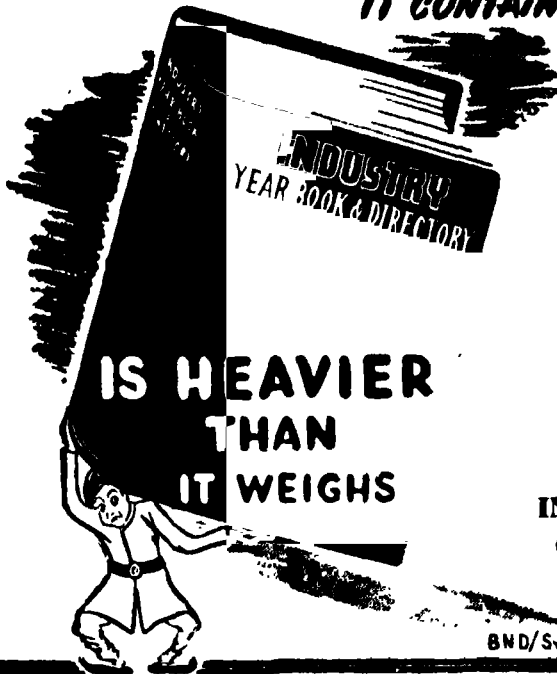
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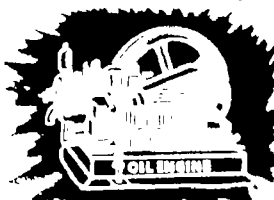
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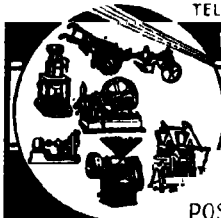


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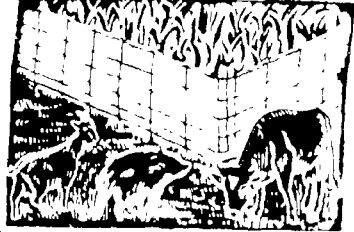
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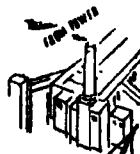
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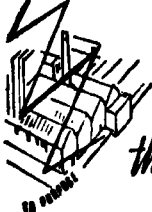


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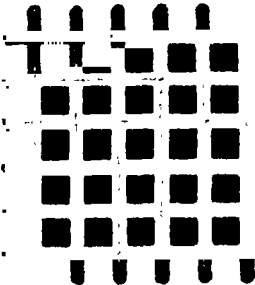
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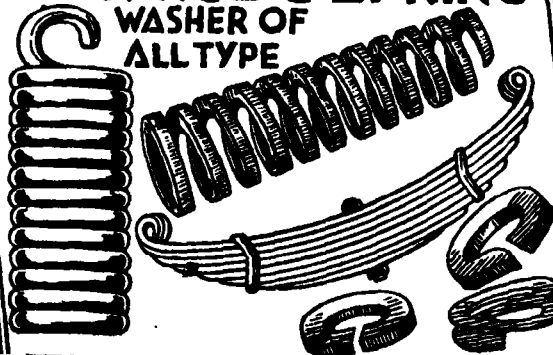


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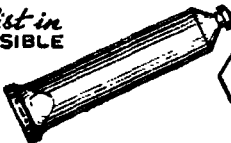
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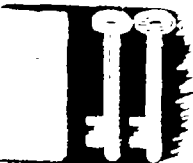
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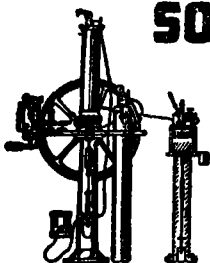
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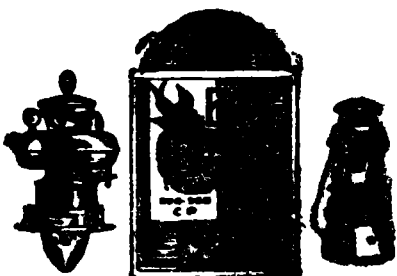
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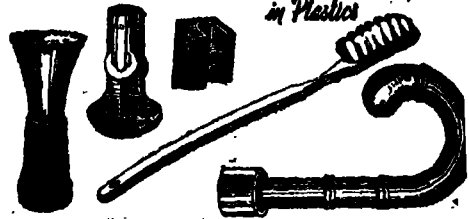
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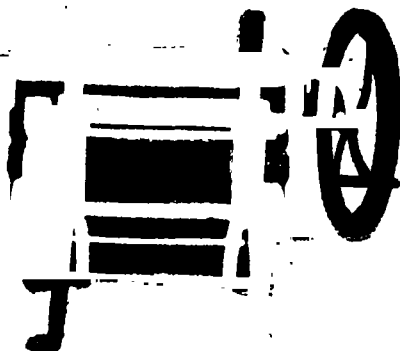
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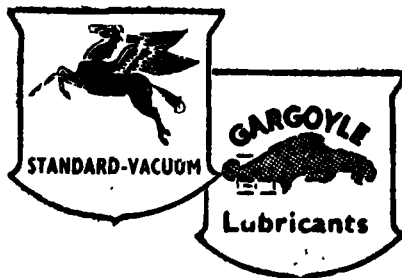
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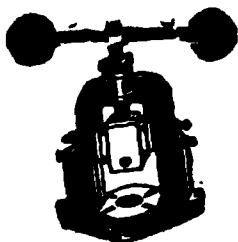
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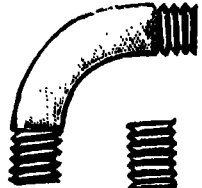
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Industry

EDITOR :

N. BANERJEE.

VOL. XLII.

CALCUTTA, APRIL, 1951.

No. 493.

"SOLID RESULTS."

THE Indian Budget for 1951-52 presents an overall picture of the economic conditions which can by no means be called hopeful.

It is distressing to note that notwithstanding the plethora of plannings covering almost all spheres of economic activities and frequent exhortations to the men in the street to be practically-minded and engaged in solid work, the general economic conditions in the country do not register any improvement ; on the other hand they are actually causing "considerable anxiety," as stated in the Budget speech of the Finance Minister.

If this deterioration is causing "considerable anxiety" to the Government, it is causing much more auxiety to the people who are going without food and cloth and have to deny for long years the very amenities of life which stand for higher "standard of living" for which it is stated the Government is striving for. Neither do they know when they will be relieved of the heavy taxations under which they are groaning.

Inescapable conclusion from all this is that there are some defects in working out the plans. It is time that proper enquiries be instituted about the progress of the various plans in operation for which the Government is spending lots of money. Lately an enquiry was made by the Reserve Bank of India about the progress of the Grow-more-food campaign in Bombay, which had been in operation for the last eight to nine years. The investigations revealed that "the achievements of the campaign did not appear to be commensurate with the resources expended on it," and that "the campaign was often directed with more attention to publicity and glamour than to solid results." The total failure of the Jute Campaign, as lately disclosed in a press communique, should also set us athinking if we have the right type of men at the helm of affairs who instead of merely devoting themselves to publicity work in the press will act in a way that will lead to "solid results." The recent revelations about the scheme for pre-fabricated houses, fertiliser factory, etc. should be stern eye-openers to the Government. It is time that the Government set about their business in a practical way and instead of allowing matters to drift in an aimless way give a correct lead by carefully re-examining the schemes and leave them in charge of those who are capable of showing "solid results."

-CURRENT TOPIC

WORLD TOBACCO CONGRESS

A World Tobacco Congress will be held at Amsterdam from the 17th to 24th September, 1951, under the auspices of the Netherlands Ministries of Economic Affairs and of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food of the Government of the Netherlands. The Congress intends covering the entire field of cultivation, science, commerce and fabrication of tobacco, in order to co-ordinate the work of the agencies which are interested in this field.

Attached to the Congress, an exhibition will be held for the display of raw tobacco and its production, excepting tobacco manufactures. It is hoped that as many parties as possible will avail of the opportunity for displaying their products to a large gathering of world tobacco interests. Particulars may be had of the Director of Exhibitions, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Administrative Intelligence Room, Queensway, New Delhi.

TRADE ARRANGEMENTS BETWEEN INDIA AND SPAIN

Trade arrangements have been arrived at between the Governments of India and Spain as a result of discussions held in October 1950. The arrangements will continue in force up to September 30, 1951.

The Spanish Government have agreed to grant licences for the import of green or black tea from India up to a value of pound 4,000. The other main Indian goods of interest to Spain are: hides and skins, dyeing and tanning substances, kapok, shellac, manganese ore, chrome ore, carborundum and corindon, linseed,

Indian Government have agreed to import from Spain fluorspar and lithopneumite. There are a large number of other commodities available in Spain which can be imported into India under the existing import control regulation. Some of these are: potassium chloride, tartaric acid, chemicals, manufacturers, drugs and medicines, saffron, almonds, glass sheets and plate, implements and tools, electric motors of permissible type, electric meters, leather tanning and curing machinery, power driven pumps, saw mills and wood working machinery, olive oil, knitting machinery, textile machinery of permissible type, cotton, jute and wool, shuttles, lead (cast and wrought), quick silver, cigarette paper, umbrella cloth, ferro-alloys, ball bearings above 1" bore diameter and roller bearings, abrasives, pneumatic air compressors, railway accessories, firework for ship, electrical appliances (permissible type) and permissible chemicals.

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A remarkable feature of the production of sugar in India for the season 1950-51 is that the quality of sugar manufactured shows a welcome improvement in the production of I.S.S. No. 29, the highest colour grade, shows marked increase from about 1.97 per cent in the last season to 9.19 per cent this season. Production of I. S. S. No. 28 also has been nearly twice that of the last year, the rise being from 26.41 to 49.13 per cent. I. S. S. No. 27 this year covers the highest production and marks a significant improvement inasmuch as I. S. S. 27 accounted for the highest production during the past seasons.

Production of I. S. S. No. 26, has got

8 this year: production under other grades have likewise decreased. The bulk of production is represented by the colour grades, viz., I. S. S. Nos. 29, 27, and 26, which account for 96.05 per cent of the total production. A significant improvement of the year is that the increase in production of I. S. S. colour grades Nos. 27, 26 and 25 has been wholly absorbed by the increase in production of higher I. S. S. colour grades Nos. 28 and 29, which marks a definite progress towards production of better qualities of jute in respect of colour. Production of jute in different I. S. S. grain sizes continues to be more or less similar to that of last year.

CENTRAL BUILDING RESEARCH INSTITUTE

The Seventh National Laboratory of India viz., the Central Building Research Institute, started functioning last February at Roorkee, Uttar Pradesh. The lines of research which the Central Institute will undertake include, among others, (a) problems of heating, lighting and ventilation of building; (b) properties of materials used in building such as cement, plaster, bricks, etc.; and (c) structure and strength of materials. It will also undertake examination of buildings in common use and methods of applying them with a view to effecting improvement wherever practicable, undertake scientific diagnosis of the causes and defects of failures in materials themselves or in their application, and prepare standards of materials and codes of practice for various aspects of building construction.

The Institute, it is understood, will carry on its research work in collaboration with the building industry in general. Its activities naturally include basic research and fundamental studies coming within its purview, such as X-ray studies and differential thermal analysis of clays

and their electro-chemical and rheological properties, strains and stresses in structures, and comfort in buildings. It will be assisted in its work by an Advisory Council, representing different interests, and by standing and ad hoc scientific and technical committees, consisting of specialists in different subjects. It is to be hoped that the Institute will also consider the problem of planning and building houses for the low income groups and the refugees.

DRUG RESEARCH INSTITUTE

The progress of research in drugs and medicines in our country has been, sporadic, unorganised, and haphazard. In view of this, and also prompted by the imperative need for ensuring collaborative effort among the various groups of scientists engaged in drug research, the Pharmaceutical and Drugs Committee of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research emphasised, as early as in 1947, the importance of intensive research on drugs and chemicals forming an integral part of any comprehensive health plan for India, and recommended the establishment of a Central Research Institute. It is in pursuance of this recommendation that the Government of India decided, some time ago, to set up the Central Drug Research Institute at Lucknow as one of the eleven National Scientific Laboratories. The opening of this Institute in February by India's Prime Minister thus marks a very significant event in the history of Indian drug research.

The Institute's main functions are:— (1) promotion of drug research generally; (2) testing and standardisation of drugs discovered there and providing expert advice on further development and production; (3) providing facilities and advice to such scientists, universities and

institutions, industries and others as are not in position to carry out complete investigations in matters relating to drugs; (4) organising controlled clinical trials of drugs in hospitals and clinics; and (5) dissemination of scientific knowledge relating to drugs. The Institute will have several divisions, including chemistry, biochemistry, pharmacology, microbiology and parasitology, clinical science, and botany, besides an animal house for testing the effect of various drugs on animals.

The prevalence of epidemic and endemic diseases, such as malaria, small-pox, cholera, plague, typhoid and typhus fever, should set the scientific workers connected with the Institute athinking if new drugs and medicines can be made and rendered available to the common man at as cheap a price as possible. This will be helpful to the industry and serviceable humanity.

GARDEN COLONIES

Low yield of different fruit trees is an important problem of our country. The yield of most of the fruit varieties is not even 50 p.c. of that obtained in some of the advanced countries. The Agriculture Department, Punjab (I), in view of the vital importance of this problem has been collecting leading varieties of all fruits and selecting the competent ones after thorough comparative trials for producing of desired pedigree. The Department has also been supplying genuine plants to the public at prices much below those charged by private nurseries. For this purpose, a Central nursery is maintained at Jullundur with subsidiary branches at Gurdaspur, Attari, Palampur, Abohar, Hansi, Sirsa, Karnal, Panipat and important fruit growing areas of the State. The idea is to make available nursery plants of approved types at the very door of the

growers and thus minimise the cost of transportation and the chances of mortality in transit. It is also proposed to extend the work of supply of reliable nursery plants.

FRUIT INDUSTRY IN PUNJAB (I)

In order to revive the fruit industry in Punjab (I) the Government have reserved an area of 21,030 acres in 20 compact blocks in the state for the establishment of fruit orchards. Mostly displaced persons have been allotted land in these colonies in blocks of 20 and 10 acres. This is the first experiment of its kind in co-operative gardening in the whole of Asia, with great potentialities for the future.

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

The year 1950, was a period of prosperity" for all major industries, excepting cotton textile and jute industries, which were handicapped by the shortage of raw materials due to trade deadlock with Pakistan. Statistics regarding the leading national industries showed that cotton textiles last year reached the lowest ebb since partition. The textile industry's output in 1950 was 3,667 million yards of cloth, a decline of 237 million yards from the previous year. The jute industry India's major dollar earner, also touched a low ebb in 1950 with the production of jute goods totalling 836,000 tons as against 946,000 tons in 1949. Production in other major industries, e.g., steel, coal, cement, salt and electrical goods registered substantial increases. Steel production increased to about 980,000 tons last year. The previous year's production was 920,000 tons. Cement production went up to 2,600,000 tons last year as against 2,100,

000 tons in 1949. During 1950, 32 million tons of coal were mined an increase of 5% over the previous year. The country's entire requirements of softcoke and brick-burning coke were met from Indian collieries. Over 70,700,000 manuds of salt were produced in 1950 as against 55,600,000 manuds in 1949. India's salt production is adequate for her needs and may even leave a margin for exports, in the opinion of salt dealers.

LOCOMOTIVE MANUFACTURE IN INDIA

It may be recalled that a Technical Aid Agreement was signed about a year ago between the Indian Railway Administration and the Locomotive Manufacturers' Association of Great Britain. Under the agreement, any locomotive which India may require over and above her indigenous production will be supplied by the Association subject to the price and delivery being satisfactory to the Ministry of Railways. In 1950 three locomotives were built at Chittaranjan with parts manufactured abroad. The 1951 target is 33 locomotives with 33% of the parts built in the Works. It will produce 45 locomotives in 1952 with 72% parts manufactured at Chittaranjan, while in 1953 the target will be 60 locomotives, 80% of the parts of which will be built in India. Complete production of 90 locomotives has been planned for 1954.

Under the Agreement technicians are also being supplied by the Association for the Works. There are now six full-time British consultants on loan. In addition, the Works is periodically visited by a chief technical consultant one of whom is now in India. The first batch of about 10 Indian technicians is now in England on training with member firms of the Association.

TISSUE MILL IN INDIA

It was felt that India being a chief source of hemp and seed flax, which are the main raw materials, for the manufacture of tissue paper for cigarette making should be an ideal home for its manufacture but the supplies of tissue from abroad being adequate, no project for its production was then conceived. It was not until the late war that supplies from many parts of the world ceased and the provision of tissue paper for the cigarette industry in this country became in a sense of the word a burning question. In 1942 cigarette manufacturers decided to ensure their source of supply by manufacturing in this country. A small pilot installation, which cost only Rs. 10,00,000 was set up at Raniganj. It was capable of producing from 30 to 40 tons of tissue paper a month, and came into production in 1943. It was the success of this plant that decided the promoters to go ahead with the far larger project of making tissue paper on a commercial scale at Tribeni. The Mill has been designed to produce 24 tons of finished tissue a month. This is a small amount in terms of normal paper manufacture, but it is of considerable importance in terms of cigarettes. The output each month on this basis is sufficient to wrap five and a half thousand million cigarettes. That is, 250,000 miles of cigarettes placed end to end or 5,000 miles of cigarettes packed in tins of 50. Less than half this quantity will at the present moment be required for cigarette production in India. One hundred and forty tons per month will be available for export to West Africa, Israel, South America, Central America, China, Australia and New Zealand. The foreign currency accruing to India as a result of these exports will amount to approximately Rs. 1,00,000 per month.

FIXATION OF MINIMUM WAGES

The question of fixation of minimum wages for industrial labour as envisaged in the Central Minimum Wages Act of 1948 was referred to the National Planning Commission. The Commission thinks that the time is not opportune for such a step, especially because of unsettled conditions in most Indian industries resulting mainly from international developments. It is thought that the fixation of minimum wages will invariably lead to increased production costs, and will adversely affect the country's economy in addition to worsening the competitive position of Indian industries in the world market. Considering the Indian Government's financial and administrative limitations, the Commission has also suggested that the statutory fixation of minimum wages for agricultural labour be left to the discretion of States.

Accepting the Commission's suggestions, the Government has decided to amend the Act during the current session of Parliament. The Amending Bill will seek to extend the time limit for fixing the minimum wages for industrial labour by another year from March, 1951. The original time limit was March, 1950.

ATOMIC ENERGY MINERALS

Geological Survey by Atomic Energy Commission has revealed rich and extensive deposits of Atomic Energy Minerals in parts of Travancore, Madras, Bihar, Rajasthan, and Ajmer. Two Uranium belts also rich in Thorium and Lithium have been discovered, one, 50 miles long

in East India and another running toward North West from about Central India.

Of the universally recognized Atomic Energy metals, Uranium, Thorium and Beryllium, India is richest in Thorium deposits. A Factory at Alwaye, in Travancore, is to be set up for separation of Uranium and Thorium from Monazite sands. The Union Government and the Travancore State Government are jointly setting up a Factory for processing Monazite sands for the production of rare earths, Uranium etc.. A French firm is setting up the plant offering the necessary technical assistance and undertaking processing until such time as the Indian personnel being trained by the firm, in France, are in a position to assume charge of processing. Another Factory is to be set up for production of Uranium and Thorium Compounds from out of the Uranium ores as also Uranium and Thorium bearing residues obtained from the Rare Earth Factory at Alwaye. This factory is expected to be self-supporting by sale of Thorium compounds to indigenous Gas-Mantle Industry.

Atomic Energy Commission has offered to buy all stocks of Uranium ore at prices based on their Uranium contents. As a further incentive rewards are offered for discovery of new deposits and grants-in-aid for mine developments.

Lithium bearing mineral deposits have also been recently discovered. The metal is found to be very important in the production of Super-bombs. India is one of the few countries possessing large quantities of this rare metal.

—INDIAN SOIL & CROPS

THE enormous extent of the territory of India and its vast population are now causing the State a good deal of difficulties to feed the people. Since the chief wealth of an agricultural country extensive methods of cultivation is the soil, from the crop of which live both the peasant and the State itself.

The soil of India is intrinsically rich, and suited to the particular crops sown thereon. The land of the country has been under the plough for countless centuries but has shown no signs of exhaustion. It still continues to yield fairly large quantities of the crops shown thereon. The yield per unit is comparatively lower in this country than in some more advanced and scientifically better developed countries, employing superior technique and providing appropriate aids to keep the soil perennially rich. But that is due rather to ignorance and economic factors, than to any inherent defects of the soil.

AREA CULTIVATED UNDER VARIOUS CROPS

The gross area cultivated with crops covered 253,198,000 (India proper) plus 77,309,000 (in Indian States) acres in 1942-43. The different classes of crops and the area occupied by each class are stated in the table below. Of the total sown area food crops occupied about 267,708,000 acres or 82 per cent and money crops 44,796,000 acres plus 1,003,000 or 18 per cent. Of the food-crops, food-grains (cereals and pulses) covered as much as 197,923,000 plus 56,156,000 acres or 78 per cent of the total area sown and other food crops (condiments and spices, sugar, fruits and vegetables, and miscellaneous food-crops together) some 10,479,000 plus 3,150,000

acres or 4 per cent of the total. Of the money crops, fibres (such as cotton jute, hemp, etc.) occupied 15,994,000 plus 6118 acres and oil-seeds 15,110,000 plus 7817 acres, or 6 per cent of the total area sown in each case. The other non-food crops—dyes and tanning materials, drugs and narcotics (tobacco, tea, coffee, opium, etc.), fodder crops, and miscellaneous non-food crops together occupied about 13,692,000 acres or 6 per cent of the total. This will be evident from following table:—

	Area In India Proper	Area In States
	(Thousand Acres.)	
Food grains	197,923	56,156
Condiments and Spices ..	1,430	982
Sugar	3,588	301
Fruits & Vegetables	4,126	1,223
Miscellaneous Food Crops ..	1,335	644
Total Food Crops ..	208,402	59,306
Oil-seeds	15,110	7,817
Fibres	15,994	6,118
Dyes & Tanning Materials ..	80	4
Drugs and Narcotics	2,114	536
Fodder Crops	10,607	2,511
Miscellaneous non-Food Crops ..	891	1,017
Total Non-Food Crops ..	44,796	18,003

In the development of agriculture, however, the first and foremost consideration is the study soil, to find out its suitability of cultivation of a particular type of crop. Then classify the soil according to this system. Of course, one type of soil may be conserved with other type by judicious application of manure.

In this article it is proposed to discuss the different varieties of Indian soils, their capacity of food production and their development to meet the ever-increasing demands for the production of

SOILS AND ITS FORMATION

Soil may be defined as a heterogeneous collection of rock and mineral fragments whose decomposition and disintegration have been brought about by the action of physical, chemical and biological forces, working singly or in combination. From the view point of the agriculturist, the main function of the soil is the support of plant growth, hence the above definition must include that a soil must contain sufficient decomposable plant remains to serve as a source of energy in stimulating the action of these forces to produce plant food in an amount sufficient to support the growth of plants commonly used in agricultural pursuits.

As our present soils are a result of actions that have continued throughout all the ages, it is evident that they would differ markedly in their characteristics. The kind of rock, or rocks, from which they have been formed, and the time, manner, and place of their formation together with certain features that they now possess, present definite factors that can be correlated, and thus serve as a basis for a definite classification.

PHYSICAL CLASSIFICATION OF SOIL

The soils may be classified into sedentary and transported. Transported soils are again subdivided into Alluvial and Diluvial. Alluvial soil consists of fragments or particles of minerals arranged according to their size and are very fertile. Diluvial soil consists of soil proper mixed up with stones and boulders, brought down by rain from hills.

Soils are also classed as Light and Heavy, Warm and Cold, Moist and Dry. They are also classified according to the crops which do best on them, or which ought to be grown on them for economical reasons. Richest soils are called garden

to their prevailing physical constituents. These are, stone, gravel, grit, sand, calcium carbonate, vegetable matter, moisture. Soils are thus divided into stony, gravelly, gritty, sandy, calcareous, peaty and marshy. There is however no hard and fast distinction between one group and the next. Sand may be against siliceous, or micaceous felspathic, that is either containing a lot of plant-food or none at all. Stones and pebbles are not immediately useful to plant-life but they serve a useful purpose in retaining moisture and acting as a reserve of plant-food. Stony soils therefore though usually poor are not necessarily, and some stony soils, those which contain chiefly fossils, limestones, basaltic stones and felspars, are rich.

MECHANICAL ANALYSIS

The mechanical analysis of soil is done by sifting and washing. Soil is separated into the coarser particles and washing the finer particles. The sample of soil to be analysed is to be spread on the floor of a dry and warm room; lumps are to be broken up and crushed as drying process. The large stones are then to be picked out, cleaned, dried and weighed. A sample of dry soil is then to be passed through a sieve the meshes of which are 3 mm diameter. That which passes through the sieve is weighed as fine earth, and what remains on the sieve as gravel. The gravel is further washed and dried and weighed again as true gravel. The fine earth is then boiled for an hour to break up lumps, and it is then put into a washing apparatus (e.g., Schulz's apparatus), which by introducing a flow of water at different rates, first the finest suspended matter is washed away and then succe

Another process of mechanical analysis of soils consists in arranging a series of vessels side by side and allowing the water to flow from the one to flow into the next. This also divides the soil into portions of different consistency. For either process is necessary finally to let the water percolate completely from each vessel and to weigh the dry residue. This analysis enables us to separate the soil into (1) pebbles; (2) mechanical gravel; (3) coarse sand; (4) fine sand; (5) finest sand, and (6) clay and impalpable matter. Clay proper is that which contains only fine particles and impalpable matter. Soils which lack the physical property of clay may contain no clay in the chemical sense, i.e., a lack of aluminium. The composition of chemically pure clay may be represented by the formula $Al_2O_3 \cdot 2SiO_2 \cdot 2H_2O$.

A more rough and ready method of mechanical analysis consists in taking a sample of soil, mixing it up with a pint of water, leaving it in the water for 24 hours, shaking it up and allowing the heavy particles to settle for 5 minutes. The supernatant liquid can then be poured into another vessel which may be allowed to stand for another 24 hours. The sandy part will be seen settled in one vessel and the clayey part in the other. These may be dried and weighed separately.

If 100 grains of dry soil, not peaty or usually rich in vegetable matter, leave more than 10 of clay treated in this manner, it is called sandy soil; if from 10 to 20 a sandy loam; if from 20 to 40 a loamy

soil; if from 40 to 60, a clay loam; from 60 to 85, a strong clay soil; and when no clay is separated at all by this process, it is called a pure agricultural clay. Pure clay contains silica and alumina in the proportion of about 60 of the former to 40 of the latter, but the composition of agricultural

however, that arable land should contain more than 30 to 35 per cent. of alumina. Soil containing more than 5% of carbonate of lime is called marl, and more than 20%, calcareous soil. Peaty soils contain more than 5% of humus or vegetable mould. Ferruginous soils contain over 5% of iron.

CHEMICAL CLASSIFICATION

In chemically classifying the soil we must consider the chemical composition of plants and then classify according to chemical requirements of plants. We know that plants derive the bulk of their food from the air and from water. The largest proportion of a plant consists either of carbon or of water. The carbon portion of a plant also varies very much, but it usually comes next in importance to water. The carbon is fixed in plants with the help of sun light acting on chlorophyll granules, out of the carbon dioxide of the air. So the carbon of plants is derived without any trouble on the part of the cultivator. The nitrogen of plants is partly derived from the atmosphere by rain but it is mainly obtained from the soil and manures applied to it. The presence of ammonia and nitrates in the soil is therefore of great importance. In fact, the amount of nitrogen present in the soil mainly determines its value. There are other constituents of plants, which are essential, though usually occurring in minute proportions. For these minor essentials plants have to depend entirely on soil.

On burning a plant, its carbon, water, and nitrogen pass away and only ash is left behind, which on analysis is found to contain the following:—Phosphoric acid, sulphuric acid, potash, lime, magnesia and iron in the form of oxides. Soda, silica and chlorine are also present, although

- these food constituents. Alumina is only sometimes found.

According to the chemical requirements of plants, soils can be divided into: (1) Aqueous or boggy soils; (2) Nitrogenous soils; (3) Phosphatic soils; (4) Potassic soils; (5) Calcareous soils; (6) Ferruginous soils; (7) Siliceous soils; (8) Alkali soils (containing an abundance of CaO , MgO , NaO and K_2O); and (9) then sulphurous soils. Water is of the highest value, then nitrogen, then phosphorus, then potash, then lime, then sulphur, then iron and lastly silica, chlorine and soda. The physical importance of Silica or Sand, as making the soil freer and lighter to work and for roots to penetrate, is very great, but not its chemical importance. The chemical importance of the soluble silicates in soils is, however, very great. The importance of Chlorine and Soda (i.e., of common salt) for certain crops such as coconut, mangoes, beet (not sugarbeet), onions, carrots, radishes, potatoes, cabbages, cotton, cashew-nuts, date, breadfruit tree, asparagus, is undoubted, but the presence of these is not essential in the soil for every crop.

Potassium salts can replace sodium salts in some plants, and the presence of potassium salt is therefore doubly important. The absence of any of the essential constituents of plants, as mentioned above, makes a soil quite sterile. But in rare cases it is met with a type of soil wanting altogether in moisture, or nitrogen, or phosphoric acid, or potash, or lime, or magnesia, or iron, or sulphuric acid.

Plants generally grow in any soil which contains a sufficient proportion of these. The presence of an excess of certain salts or of some substances poisonous to plants may render the soil sterile in spite of the

contains all the essential constituents the growth of vegetation, and even well-water or drainage-water percolating through soils contains all the essential constituents for the growth of vegetation so much so, that water-culture with well or drainage-water alone has been successful with reference to a good number of plants including oats. It is from solution that plants can absorb food. The solubility is helped by the organic acids and carbon-dioxide excreted by the root. Soil digested in water ought to part with 1 part of solid for every 1,000 parts of water for plants to make proper use of solid. If over 2 parts of solid are dissolved in 1,000 parts of water, the root cannot make proper use of the food, not less than .5 part in 1,000 parts. A soil can be too rich in soluble plant-food too poor, as the solubility is required to be in a certain dilution. A soil becomes too rich if in the dry season it is manured with fertilizer which contains nearly 2 p.c. of urea, a substance which can be directly used by plants as food. But a 2 per cent. solution even of a valuable plant-food is at least 10 times too rich. This accounts for the remarks of Bengal cultivators regarding urine as injurious to crops, though it is really not so valuable in the fresh state than cow-dung. Diluted with ten times as much water, urine proves a most excellent fertilizer for soils. As nearly all soils contain all the constituents of plant-food, the chemical classification of soils is based not on absolute but only on relative grounds.

TYPES OF INDIAN SOIL

There are four main varieties of soils in India, namely:—

(a) The red soils derived from rocks of the Archaean system. These are found chiefly in Madras, Mysore and the Son

to Orissa, Chota Nagpur, and the North of Bengal.

(b) The black cotton or Regur soils which overlie the Deccan trap and cover the greater part of Bombay, Berar, the western parts of Madhya Pradesh and Hyderabad with extension into Central India and Bundelkhand. In Madras these soils are less common but still important.

(c) The alluvial soil of Indo-Gangetic Plain and the Plains of the Indus Valley. They are the most important variety from the point of view of agricultural productivity yielding probably the largest quantity of food stuffs. These include Sind, Northern Rajasthan, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and half of Assam.

(d) The laterite soils forming a belt around the peninsula and extending into West Pakistan, Assam and thence to Burma.

Besides these four main categories, there are other soils in India, such as the desert soils of Rajasthan or Eastern parts of West Pakistan, which are not so rich in yield or extensive in area. Rajasthan and Southern Punjab have other varieties of alkali soils, which go under various names in the different Provinces. These soils have a high degree of impermeability and stickiness together with heavy alkalinity and frequent presence of excess of these salts. These soils are usually poor in nitrogen and so are unsuitable for crop raising without previous reclamation.

Forest soils make yet another category, and occupy large tracks of the country. The soil profiles in Chauthatta Hill and of the Kulu Forests belong to the Brown earth and Bordsol variety.

DIFFERENT SPECIES OF CROPS

After classifying the soils both physically and chemically let us classify

the soils with reference to the crops. This kind of classification has the merit of being easily applicable in practice to ordinary farming, as it does not depend on elaborate chemical analysis but only on such rough and ready methods of analysis as an intelligent and educated farmer can easily command.

To determine the class of any soil the following direction should be followed:—

(1) Take 100 grains of a well-pulverized soil after drying it for half an hour in an air or oil-bath at 250°F. Heat it in a platinum crucible for half an hour, stirring the mass occasionally. Cool it in a desiccator and weigh. The loss of weight is calculated as Humus.

(2) Digest the residue in the platinum crucible in a phial with cold diluted Hydrochloric acid in proportion of $\frac{1}{4}$ ounce of acid to 10 ounces of water to 100 grains of dry soil. Let the digesting go on for half an hour with occasional stirring. Filter through a weighed filter-paper, wash until the water passing through ceases to give acid reaction tested with litmus paper. Dry the whole at 250°F.; weigh the substance in the filter paper; deduct the weight of the filter-paper. The loss of weight represents the amount of lime.

(3) The contents of the filter paper are now carefully removed into a tall glass cylinder, and the impalpable matter is separated from the sand and coarser particles by repeated washing with water. Stir well, let it subside for a minute and then pour on the supernatant liquid. The impalpable matter thus separated is collected on a filter, dried as before and weighed. The weight represents the weight of clay.

(4) The remainder is sand.

From the above method of classification we may mention here the terms of

crops, which will grow on a particular soil.

ARGILLACEOUS OR CLAYEY SOILS

Argillaceous or clayey soils, which contain above 50 per cent clay and do not contain more than 5 per cent lime commonly called paddy land are suitable for the cultivation of sugar cane, paddy, wheat, arahar, gram, peas, beans, moong, linseed, and cabbages. The calcareous kinds of soils which are not too rich in clay and not too poor in sand and humus, give good returns. And those, which are poor in humus, are still suited for oats.

LOAMY SOILS

These soils contain not more than 50 not less than 30 per cent of clay and do not contain more than 5 per cent of lime. These are known as vegetable land. The most appropriate types of crops grow in this class of land are wheat, barley, grain, jowar, cotton, arahar, maize, beans, cauliflowers.

SANDY LOAMS

These kind of soils contain not more than 30 per cent not less than 20 per cent of clay. They do not contain more than 5 per cent of lime. These soils are suitable for the cultivation of bajra, kalai, aus paddy, barley with gram, jowar, mustard with wheat, and other rabi crops, potatoes and turnips. Other root crops also thrive well in these soils.

LOAMY SANDS

Loamy sands contain not more than 20 not less than 10 per cent of clay and contain less than 5 per cent of lime. These are suitable for growing kalai, mustard, sorguja, cucurbitaceous vegetables (melon, gourd, etc.), barley if rich in humus, and jowar.

SANDY SOILS

In sandy soils not more than 10 p.c. of clay is present. They do not contain more

than 5 per cent of lime. These are called millet land and are best suited for cultivating the following: Bajra with sorguja, kalai or moong, also barley in value and often cultivated only every third year and the poor lands are cultivated at all. Those soils contain humus and lime are chiefly fit for bu wheat, oats, hemp, tobacco, potato millets and maize.

MARLY SOILS

Marly soils contain more than 5 per cent but less than 20 per cent of lime. The argillaceous types containing above 50 per cent clay, and 5 to 20 per cent lime are commonly called paddy and arahar lands. They are suited for paddy, arahar, wheat, khasari, and moosur. The loamy types are containing 30 to 50 per cent clay and 5 to 20 p.c. lime suitable for wheat, potatoes, barley, and pulses. The sandy types are best suited to barley, gram and maize. The types of marly soils belonging to loamy sand are suited for oats, jowar, pulses and bajra. The marly soils which contain above 5 per cent humus, 20 to 50 or more of clay and 5 to 20 p.c. of lime, are suitable for cotton. The humus and argillaceous marly soils are amongst the best that exist.

CALCAREOUS SOILS

The calcareous soils contain more than 20 per cent of lime and are known to cultivators as pulse lands. The argillaceous soils often approach in value to the argillaceous marls; the remaining orders of both these classes equally correspond one with the other; to the most valuable belongs, as in the case of marly soils, the humus. Those wanting in humus require much manure. Those rich in clay are well suited for wheat. Oats and lucerne thrive in them. Their value is much decreased by containing an excess

of lime. It makes soils both hungry and thirsty, i.e., they need heavy manuring and irrigation, unless there is humus in them, over 5 per cent. But oats and most pulses and lucerne will do on such soils.

HUMUS SOILS

Humus soils are known as lands for oil seeds and vegetable. The value of these soils is greatly augmented by admixture with lime. Those which contain lime and clay are suited for wheat, barley, melons, gourd, and oleagenous plants; the loamy and sandy humus soils are specially adapted for oats, and in most places for wheat. The peaty and acid humus may be made fruitful by admixture with lime, sand and clay.

. EFFECTS OF SUNLIGHT, RAIN, ETC

Effects of different coloured rays of the sun on vegetation are important factors bearing on farming. A short discussion on this subject will give an idea to the would be farmers.

Solar rays are composed of seven colours. The different colours are known to produce different effects on vegetation. The following extract from Mr. N. G. Mukherjee's Handbook of Agriculture will show the effects of different colours such as ruby, brown-red, orange, yellow, cobalt-blue and deep green. "The young plants first broke the soil in the box covered with the orange glass, and last under those covered by yellow, green and blue glasses. It was subsequently found that the effect of the yellow rays was such as to prevent the germination of the seed, even although the rays only rested on the surface of the soil while the seed lay buried beneath; while, again, the blue light seemed to remarkably favour the process. Under the orange light the plants grew very tall, but then they had white stalks, and they refused to put forth any flowers. Under the yellow light it was remarkable

that a number of little fungi or mould sprang up and flourished luxuriantly while the plants themselves withered and died. Under the red light the plants only grew an inch or two high, had somewhat of a reddish colour, and soon rotted and perished, although supplied with abundance of food in the soil in which they were placed. Under the green light the plants grew slowly but tolerably strong yet none would flower, notwithstanding the greatest care and attention paid them. The results under the blue light were very different. The seed germinated a little less quickly than in the open air, but the plants became compact and healthy in their character, putting forth their flower-buds strongly and flowering in perfection. Under this light alone the various processes go on with the vigour which is characteristic of vegetation in the open air. It is inferred that such would also probably be the case with plants grown under violet glass."

RAIN-FALL

The amount and distribution of rainfall which a particular locality receives usually determine its productiveness, especially in the tropics. In the Malabar coast of India and in parts of Assam the largest quantity of rainfall occurs, and these are the most productive tracts in India. The regions of heavy rainfall, i.e. of 70 to 100 inches or more, are Assam, parts of Eastern Bengal, the Cis-Himalayan region of Northern Bengal and the Eastern and Western Ghats.

The effect of rain fall slowly but sure in changing the physical character of the surface soil, where such soil lies bare, is overgrown only by short grass, must not be ignored. The finer lighter, which is at advantage only for soils which are too stiff. High winds, however, bring but some amount of fine dust and tend to keep

up a balance. High winds which prevail on the seaside districts are therefore not to be regarded as absolutely inimical to agricultural pursuits. In course of time they help to make sandy tracts loamy and fit for cultivation. On the whole, however, boisterous winds are not helpful to the proper growth of crops unless they are very short crops. An occasional gale may lay low and spoil a crop nearly ready for the sickle and where high winds are the rule, very few crops can be grown and the landscape is generally found quite bare of trees in such localities, and how helpful trees are to agriculture in various ways, we will see later on.

What proportion of rain evaporates, what proportion sinks into the soil and feeds wells and springs, and what proportion finds its way by means of drains, streams and rivers, into the sea, depend upon the climate of the place, the season of the year, the porosity of the soil, the nature of the strata below, and the contour of the whole district or locality.

The rainfall of India is becoming more and more capricious, and this is to be attributed to the establishment of factories in regions where there is no coal, and where, in consequence, trees are getting cut down in millions every year. There are about 1,200 factories in the Bombay Presidency, using daily about 200 manuds of fuel each. What an enormous destruction of trees this must imply. The effect of trees in equalising temperature and the distribution of rain, and in entrapping rain, is universally recognised. A law should be passed in this country insisting on the planting and maintenance of a tree for every one cut down, whether in forests or in cultivated areas.

Untimely rainfall may sometimes occur. Such heavy rainfall could be at

and Western India, and in those parts where little rain is obtained. January rains should be always utilized in getting lands under the plough after rice harvest. Once brought under the plough, the land can be afterwards kept stirred from time to time until the next rice sowing or transplanting season. This results in the soil absorbing fertility from the air and in being free from insect and fungus pests. If rains occur again in February after land has been prepared, sowing of catch-crops, or crops which take only about three months getting ready, should proceed vigorously. Such crops as have a beneficial effect on the future rice crop should be chosen in preference; so that if the crops come ultimately to nothing, the land at least may be fertilized. Melons and other cucurbitaceous crops, maize, jwar, til, bajra, marua, buckwheat, cotton, cow-pea, ground-nut, dhainchia, sunn-hemp, jowar sim or arhar sim (*Cyamopsis psoralioides*) can be grown as catch-crops with untimely but heavy rain. The last five crops should be preferred as they have an excellent action in fertilizing the soil. When untimely but heavy rains occur in any month usually there is heavy rain again the month after, at least that is our experience in Lower Bengal; so that there should be no hesitation on the part of cultivators to utilize heavy rains whenever they may happen. It is also our experience in Bengal, that heavy rains early in the season are compensated by short rainfall late in the season, and short rainfall early in the season is compensated by heavy rainfall late in the season. Cultivators make a great mistake to consult almanacs and Brahmin soothsayers in cultivating land and sowing seed. They ought to follow their own experience and common sense in the matter.

FERTILITY OF SOIL

soil is the first condition of any permanent system of agriculture. In the ordinary processes of crop production fertility is steadily lost: its continuous restoration by means of manuring and soil management is therefore imperative.

Fertility is covered by the minimum of necessary ingredient. A soil may be rich in all essential ash constituents of plants but deficient or wanting only in one, and this deficiency or want may result in its barrenness. Soils derived from several rocks are better than soils from one rock, as there is no likelihood for such soils being deficient in any necessary constituent.

A fertile soil should contain all the essential ash-constituents of plants in a sufficient quantity and in an available form. But these cannot be readily ascertained.

A ten-plot or five-plot experiment is a practical guide for ascertaining their presence. A still readier method of judging the fertility of soil is the ascertaining of the following facts: 1st. Do earthworms and grubs of insects abound to a sufficient depth in the soil? 2nd. Do plants of various natural orders, including the leguminose, grow abundantly and luxuriantly on the soil? 3rd. Are the bones of animals habitually living on the soil, large-sized? 4th. Do shells of snails, etc., abound in the soil? A soil which is helpful to the growth of wild vegetation and which is able to support wild animal-life in abundance and build the solid parts of their body which are rich in phosphoric acid and lime, must be rich soil. The greater the absorbent co-efficient of a soil, the greater is its fertility; and the larger the proportion of the decomposable silicates present in them, the more fertile they are.

The greater the proportion of a soil which is dissolved by dilute acids, the more fertile it is. The amount of soil-substances soluble in water usually varies from .2 to .5 per cent. But solubility in pure water is not a guide to the solubility of plant-food actually undergoing in the soil. Some chemists, e.g., Hermann von Liebig, assumed that dilute Acetic acid dissolved all those substances available to plants; but the acid secretions from rootlets are of a complex nature, and no absolute guide as to the dilution to be used is possible. Professor Stutzer of Bonn was the first to use 1 per cent solution of Citric acid for ascertaining the amount of available phosphoric acid in manures, and Dr. Dyer of London has carried out this method in dealing with soils, and arrived at very important practical results, in determining the proportions of available phosphoric acid and potash in soils. But the method gives no clue to the amount of available nitrogen in soils; and after all the question of fertility is mainly concerned with the amount of available nitrogen present in the soil. Besides, acid secretions from all rootlets are not all equivalent to a 1 per cent solution of Citric acid. Some secretions are more acid than others, and some plants therefore, are better able to utilize the latent fertility of soils than other. The average acidity of root-secretions in terms of Citric acid, shown by hundreds of plants examined by Dr. Dyer, is not 1 but about 0.86 per cent. Coming to individual plants he found the variation was very great. Strawberry showed about 2 per cent and a geum (another plant of the order Rosaceae) as much as 5.53 per cent; while the examination of Solanaceae and Liliaceae gave very low results, about 0.36 per cent. Cruciferae and leguminose averaged about 1% while Gramineae, Umbelliferae, Compositae and Chenopo-

diaceae showed only about $\frac{1}{2}\%$. These results, however, are very important in showing how some orders of plants, such as Rasaceae, Cruciferae and Leguminosae thrive on poor soils, while others such as Solaneae, Liliaceae, Gramineae, Umbelliferae, Compositae and Chenopodiaceae, need liberal manuring. Some plants of the same natural orders differed widely from others in this property of acidity of root-secretions and the figures should be judged according to this reservation.

BARRENNESS OF SOILS

Barrenness of soils may be produced by the presence of excess of ferrous salts formed by the oxidation of iron pyrites in the soils. Lands newly reclaimed from the sea contains ferrous salts and are therefore temporarily barren. Soils mix with tank-earth are barren for the time being. Ferrous sulphate is soluble in water but ferrous salts combined with organic matter are soluble in hydrochloric acid. Soils which are too acid may therefore become barren when there are organic ferrous salts present. Drainage, lining and cultivation and exposure to the action of sun and air are the means of reclaiming lands containing these poisons.

More than 2 per cent of soluble salts in a soil makes it barren; but a very much less proportion of sodium chloride (common salt) would make a soil barren. Lands to be reclaimed from these saline soils have to be drained of their excess of salt before they become fit for cultivation. The barren lands of the West Pakistan and Uttar Pradesh usually contain an excess of sodium carbonate or sodium sulphate which are locally called Reh. These lands are being reclaimed by drainage, enclosure and light manuring. Once a series of experiments were conducted to ascertain the proportions of different sodium salts which might be pre-

sent in a soil without preventing plant growth. In the Handbook of Agriculture by N. G. Mukherjee it is mentioned that to good garden soil, which was seen to contain no appreciable amount of any of the sodium salts, were added definite amounts of the three salts, sodium carbonate, sodium sulphate and sodium chloride. The amounts of salts varied from .1 to 1%. Cereals and pulses were sown in separate pots. It was found that each of these salts retarded the germination. The cereals were affected by 7% of carbonate or sulphate and by .4% of chloride. The germination of the pulses was retarded by smaller amounts, i.e., by .2 to .4% of Carbonate or Chloride and .7% of Sulphate. In the after-growth .2% of the carbonate did harm, whilst .4% was quite fatal. Up to .2% of Sodium Chloride was found harmless in a few cases, whilst .1% proved harmful in others. Sodium sulphate was less harmful, perfect growth both in the kharif and rabi seasons being maintained in the presence of .5% of the salt. As in germination so in the after-growth, the leguminose were affected more than the cereals by the excess of soda salts. From this experiment it may be inferred how the lands reclaimed in Sunderbuns though they become fit for growing rice very readily, are found unsuitable for pulse-crops for a long time. In the presence of lime, however, some leguminous crops such as lucerne and dhaincha can stand more common salt than they otherwise do, and in seaside places where there is no doubt of the presence of limestones, lucerne and dhaincha can be readily grown.

Another cause of the barrenness of arid lands is their impermeability to water. Gypsum has been used with success in correcting this.

Waters from mines containing aluminium and magnesium salts in excess

then prove poisonous to plants, also waters containing copper, lead and other heavy metals, in solution.

IMPROVEMENT OF SOILS

In its natural condition the soil is possessed of certain existing and obvious qualities, and of certain other dormant capabilities. How are the existing qualities to be improved and the dormant capabilities to be awakened.

It follows from the above that soils may be arranged into two broad classes, namely:—

(1) Those which contain in themselves an abundant supply of all these things which plants require, and are therefore fitted chemically to grow any crop.

(2) Those which are deficient in some of those elements on which plants live, and are therefore not fitted to grow any one crop with luxuriance.

Both these two classes of soils are susceptible to improvement the former by mechanical methods chiefly, the latter by mechanical partly, but chiefly by chemical methods of improving the soils the first step to be taken is to drain the improvable lands. The advantages that result from draining are manifold. The presence of too much water in the soil keeps it constantly cold, and thus the plants never experience for their growth that genial warmth from sun's rays, which is expended in evaporating the water. Where too much water is present in the soil, also that portion of the food of the plant which the soil supplies is so much diluted, that either a much greater quantity of fluid must be taken in by the roots or the plants will be scantily nourished. In consequence the stem and leaves keep down their temperature and so the chemical changes, on which its growth depends.

By the removal of the water, the

physical properties of the soil are in a remarkable degree improved. The soil becomes open, friable, and mellow more easily worked, and pervious to the air in every direction. The access of this air is essential to the fertility of the soil, and to the healthy growth of most of our cultivated crops. The insertion of drains not only makes room for the air to enter by removing the water, but actually compels the air to penetrate into the under parts of the soil, and renews it at every successive fall of rain.

Vegetable matter becomes of double value in a soil thus dried and filled with atmospheric air. When drenched with water, this vegetable matter either decomposes very slowly, or produces acid compounds more or less unwholesome to the plant, and even exerts injurious chemical reactions upon the earthy and saline constituents of the soil. In the presence of air, on the contrary, this vegetable matter decomposes rapidly, produces carbonic acid in large quantity, as well as other compounds on which the plant can live, and even renders the inorganic constituents of the soil more fitted to enter the roots, and thus to supply more rapidly what the several parts of the plant require. Hence, on dry land, manures containing organic matter (farmyard manure, etc.) go further, or are more profitable to the farmer. Draining also exerts a very important influence on the changes going on in the soil, whereby the nitrogen is prepared for the plant's use. In a waterlogged soil not only is the process of nitrification checked, but a reverse process goes on, whereby the nitrates already present are deoxidised and a portion of the nitrogen is set free, and escapes in the form of gas.

Nor is it only stiff and clayey soils to which draining can with

advantage be applied. It will be obvious to every one, that when springs rise to the surface in sandy soils, a drain must be made to carry off the water; it will also readily occur, that where a sandy soil rests upon a hard or clayey bottom, drains may likewise be necessary; but it not unfrequently supposed, that where the subsoil is sand or gravel, thorough draining can seldom be required.

It is not less common, even in rich and fertile districts, to see crops of beans, or oats, or barley, come up strong and healthy, and shoot up even to the time of flowering, and then begin to drop and wither, till at last they more or less completely die away. So it is rare in many places to see a second year's clover crop come up strong and healthy. These facts indicate, in general, the presence of noxious matters in the subsoil, which are reached by the roots at an advanced stage of their growth, but into which they cannot penetrate without injury to the plant. The drain calls in the aid of the rains of heaven to wash away these noxious substances from the soil, and of the air to change their nature; and this is the most likely, as well as the cheapest, means by which these evils can be prevented.

The economical advantages of draining in such soils as we possess are chiefly these:—

(1) Stiff soils are more easily and more cheaply worked.

(2) Lime and manures have more effect, and go further.

(3) Seed-time and harvest are earlier, and more sure.

(4) Larger-crops are reaped, and of better quality.

(5) Nutritive grasses spring up where inferior grasses formerly grew.

(6) Valuable crops of wheat and turnips are made to grow where scanty crops of oats were formerly the chief return.

(7) Naked fallows are rendered less necessary, and more profitable rotations can be introduced.

(8) The climate is improved, and rendered not only more suited to the growth of crops, but more favourable to the health of man and other animals.

(9) The soil is actually enriched by what the rains bring down.

(10) Air is sucked down into the subsoil.

(11) Certain processes whereby plant food is being prepared in the soil are promoted, such as nitrification.

After the land has been laid dry by drains, other mechanical modes of improvement can be employed with advantage. Even the ordinary methods of mechanical culture become more useful, and the benefits which in favourable circumstances are derived from turning up the soil are greater and more manifest. This is effected in a variety of ways. For one thing, by opening up a soil the action of the frost is rendered more powerful, and the disintegration of the soil goes on more rapidly. The soil is thus rendered more porous, and the roots of the plant are permitted to develop more quickly under such conditions. We have already pointed out that the soil can absorb from the air the minute quantities of ammonia present in it. The more the soil is tilled, the more freely will its particles be brought into contact with the air, and the more abundant will the absorption of the ammonia become. These facts will appear by a brief consideration of the effects produced by ploughing to various depths, and the causes from which they arise.

The subsoil-plough is an auxiliary to the drain—it stirs and opens the under soil without mixing it with the upper or immediately active soil. Though there are few subsoils through which the water will not at length make its way, yet there are some so stiff, either naturally or from long consolidation, that the good effect of a well-arranged line of drains is lessened by the slowness with which they allow the superfluous water to pass through them. In such cases, the use of the subsoil-plough is most advantageous in loosening the under layers of soil, and in allowing the water to find a ready escape downwards to either side, until it reaches the drains.

After the land is provided with drains, the subsoil being very retentive, the subsoil-plough is used to open it up—to let it the water and let in the air. If this is not done, the stiff under-clay will contract and bake as it dries, but it will neither sufficiently admit the air, nor open a free passage for the roots. Let this operation, however, be performed when the clay is still too wet, a good effect will follow in the first instance: but after a while the cut clay will again cohere, and the farmer will pronounce subsoiling to be a useless expense on his land. Defer the use of the subsoil-plough till the clay is dry, it will then tear and break instead of cutting it, and its openness will remain. Once give the air free access, and, after time, it so modifies the drained clay that it no longer has an equal tendency to here.

DEEP PLOUGHING

Deep ploughing, like subsoiling, aids the effect of the drains, and so far where it goes nearly as deep—even more completely effects the same object. Deep ploughing is no longer regarded with such

favour as was at one time the case. The best soil is at the top, and that the micro-organic life which exercises such an important function in promoting the process of plant-growth is chiefly to be found in the surface portion, and cannot develop freely in the deeper soil-layers. It is true that certain substances, such as lime, when applied to the soil, have a tendency to sink down, and that deep ploughing serves to bring them to the surface. Subsoiling, combined with moderate ploughing, is the best treatment for heavy soils.

IMPROVEMENT OF SOILS BY MIXING

It has been already shown that the physical properties of the soil have an important influence upon its average fertility. The admixture of pure sand with clay soils produces an alteration which is often beneficial, and which is almost wholly physical. The sand opens the pores of the clay, and makes it more permeable to the air.

The admixture of clay with sandy or peaty soils, however, produces both a physical and a chemical alteration. The clay not only consolidates and gives body to the sand or peat, but it also mixes with them certain earthy and saline substances, useful or necessary to the plant, which neither the sand nor peat might originally contain in sufficient abundance. It thus alters its chemical composition, and fits it for nourishing new races of plants.

Such is the case also with admixtures of marl, of shell-sand, and of lime. They slightly consolidate the sands and open the clays, and thus improve the mechanical texture of both kinds of soil; but their main operation is chemical; and the almost universal benefit they produce depends mainly upon the new chemical elements they introduce into the soil.

IMPROVEMENT BY AGENCY OF VEGETATION

There are certain modes of improving the soil, which, though involving only simple operations on the part of the improver, produce their effects through the agency of refined scientific causes. Such are the improvements produced by planting and laying down to grass.

Lands which are unfit for arable culture, and which yield only a trifling rent as natural pasture, are yet in many cases capable of growing profitable plantations, and of being greatly increased in permanent value by the prolonged growth of wood. Not only, however, do all trees not thrive alike on the same soil, but all do not improve the soil on which they grow in an equal degree.

The main cause of this improvement is to be found in the nature of the soil, which gradually accumulates beneath the trees by the shedding of their leaves. The shelter from the sun and rain which the foliage affords prevents the vegetable matter which falls from being so speedily decomposed, or from being so much washed away, and thus permits it to collect in larger quantities in a given time than where no such cover exists. The more complete the shelter, therefore, the more rapid will the accumulation of soil be, in so far as it depends upon this cause.

The improvement of the land, therefore, by the planting of trees, depends in part upon the quantity of organic food which the trees can extract from the air, afterwards drop in the form of leaves upon the soil, and in part upon the kind and quantity of inorganic matter which the roots can bring up from beneath, and in like manner strew upon the surface. The quantity and quality of the latter will, in a great measure, determine the kind

consequent value of the pasture in the feeding of stock.

(1) It causes vegetable matter to accumulate on the surface; and, (2) brings up from beneath certain substance which are of vital importance to the growth of plants, but in which the upper soil may have been deficient.

IMPROVEMENT BY THE APPLICATION OF LIME

The use of lime is of the greatest importance in practical agriculture. It has been employed in the forms of marl, shells, shell-sand, coral, chalk, limestone, lime stone gravel, quicklime, etc. in almost every country, and from the most remote period. Many of the older views respecting the nature of the action of lime are exploded. We now see that its action is in most cases more or less indirect. It is probably seldom that a soil lacks the necessary amount of lime required as plant food for the crops that grow upon it. Its chief action is in ameliorating the mechanical properties of the soil, and in setting free other plant foods such as potash, etc. The fact that it is very destructive on the organic matters of the soil is another consideration which should render us very cautious in applying it indiscriminately. Instead of applying lime, in many cases, it is found better policy to apply artificial manures. Great though the benefits of lime undoubtedly are, it will be best to apply it chiefly to soils whose mechanical conditions are such as will greatly be improved by it, to new land where it is simply indispensable, and to soils extremely rich in peat and organic matter. Its use, on the other hand, to land in a high state of cultivation except in very small quantities, is not to be recommended as a rule.

The quantity of quicklime laid on at

which it may be repeated, depend upon the kind of land, upon the depth of the soil, upon the quantity and kind of vegetable matter which the soil contains, and upon the species of culture to which it is subjected. If the land be wet, or badly drained, a larger application is necessary to produce the same effect, and it must be more frequently repeated. But when the soil is thin, a smaller addition will thoroughly impregnate the whole, than where the plough usually descends to the depth of 8 or 10 inches. On old pasture-lands, where the tender grasses live in 2 or 3 inches of soil only, a feeble dressing more frequently repeated, appears to be the more reasonable practice; though in reclaiming and in laying down land to grass, a heavy first liming is often indispensable.

The most remarkable visible alterations produced by lime are,—upon pastures, a greater fineness, sweetness, closeness, and nutritive character of the grasses—on arable lands, the improvement in the texture and mellowness of stiff clays, the more productive crops, their better quality and the earlier period at which they ripen, compared with those grown upon soils to which no lime has ever been added. It is said to destroy sorrel.

This influence of lime is well seen when limed is compared with unlimed land, or when soils which are naturally rich in lime or compared with such as contain but little. Barley grown on the former is of better malting quality. The turnips of well-limed land are more feeding for both cattle and sheep. And the hillpastures on limestone soils, continue longer green in autumn, and yield a greater yearly return of milk and cheese, than the soils which are produced from sandstone rocks.

It is known that the frequent addition

of lime, even to comparatively stiff soils long kept in arable culture, will at length so open them that the wheat crop becomes uncertain.

To lighter soils, again, and especially to such as are reclaimed from a state of heath, and contain much vegetable matter, the addition of a large dose of lime opens and loosens them, often to such a degree that they sound hollow, and sink under the foot. This effect is usually ascribed to an overdose lime, and the land is commonly said to be over-limed. In this state it refuses to grow oats and clover, though turnips and barley thrive well upon it.

Analyses of over-limed soils have shown that it is not an excess of lime which produces the evil, but a too porous or loose condition of the soil, which admits of the following remedies:—

(a) To eat off the turnips produced upon such soils with sheep; or,

(b) To consolidate the loose and open soil by the use of a heavy roller, a cold-crusher or peg-roller, or other similar mechanical means, or,

(c) To use the cultivator as much as possible instead of the plough, and thus to avoid the artificial loosening of the soil which is caused by frequent ploughing.

The way in which lime acts on the texture of a soil is a most interesting, but as yet little understood, subject. The chief difficulty in understanding it is owing to the complicated nature of this action.

One of the most important properties of lime is the power it has of lessening the pudding tendency of a clayey soil. This it does by coagulating the finely divided clayey particles a property which has led to the use of lime as a precipitant of sewage.

IMPROVEMENT BY PARING AND BURNING

A mode of improvement more often formerly resorted to than now on poor

lands is the paring and burning of the surface. The effect of this treatment is easily understood. The matted sods consist of a mixture of much vegetable with a comparatively small quantity of earthy matter. When these are burnt, the ash only of the plants is left, intimately mixed with the calcined earth. To strew this mixture over the soil is much the same as to dress it with peat or wood ashes, the beneficial effects of which are almost universally recognised. And the favourable influence of the ash itself is chiefly due to the ready supply of inorganic food it yield to the seed, and to the effect which the potash and soda, etc., which it contains, exercise either in preparing organic food in the soil, or in assisting its assimilation in the interior of the plant.

Another part of this process is, that the roots of the weeds and poorer greases are materially injured by the paring, and that the subsequent dressing ashes is unfavourable to their growth.

CHANGES PRODUCED BY BURNING CLAYS

When a soil is burnt, the organic portion of it is altogether, or nearly altogether, destroyed; the combustible (volatile) portion escapes into the atmosphere in the form of water, carbonic acid, etc., whilst its earthy and saline constituents remain in the soil in the form of a powder more or less fine. The soil loses nearly all its nitrogen in this way, and hence burning must be regarded as only advisable in very exceptional cases. In fact this method of improving soil is very rarely had recourse to now-a-days, as there are other more suitable and economical methods in use. Nevertheless it may be of advantage to describe the nature of the relations which take place in such treatment of soils. The saline and earthy substances derived from the combustion of the organic matter are of course

identical with the mineral constituent plants: being in a pulverulent condition they are the more readily absorbed by growing vegetables.

In all soils capable of nourishing the most worthless weed, there must be potash. This substance exists in soils in the most part in combination with silica and in such a form as to be insoluble in the solvents present in soils. That though there may be abundance of potash in the soil, yet it is mostly insoluble, and not immediately available for the nourishment of plant. By the action of frosts and by other agents, the rocky portions of the soil in which the potash is bound up become broken up and reduced to powder; during this operation potash is gradually set free, so to speak, and placed at the disposal of the plant. Burning the soil expedites its disintegration and liberates not only its potash, but some of its other constituents. In an experiment made by Dr. Voelcker, he found that unburnt clay contained 0.269 per cent of soluble potash, whilst the same clay after burning contained 0.941 per cent of potash soluble in acidulated water. One most important change produced in soils by burning is therefore a great increase in the amount of soluble potash.

It would appear that it is lime which displaces potash from its combination with silica, when the potassium silicate of soil is highly heated. Burning, therefore, diminishes the amount of calcium carbonate in soils. In the first place, carbonic acid is expelled from the carbonate (CaCO_3 , $\text{CaO} \times \text{CO}_2$), and caustic lime thereby formed decomposes the silicate of potassium, producing free potash and calcium silicate. It may happen, too, that part of the calcium carbonate directly decomposes the silicate, forming, by double decomposition, silicate of calcium and potassium carbonate.

ate, as suggested by Voelcker. Soda is not in general so abundant in soils as ash; but, when it is present, its soluble portion is increased by the operation of manuring. Where much limestone is present in a soil, burning, by effecting its integration, renders any phosphates it may contain more available.

IMPROVEMENT BY IRRIGATION

The irrigation of the land is only a more refined method of manuring it. The nature of the process itself, however, is different in different countries, as are also the kind and degree of effect it produces, and the theory by which these effects are to be explained.

In dry and arid climates, where rain rarely falls, the soil may contain all the elements of fertility, and require only water to call them into operation. In such cases—as in the irrigations practised so extensively in Eastern countries, and without which whole provinces in India would lie waste—it is unnecessary to suppose any other virtue in irrigation than the mere supply of water it affords to the parched and cracking soil.

But in some climates there are several other beneficial purposes in reference to the soil, which irrigation may, and some of which at least it always does serve thus,

The occasional flow of pure water over the surface, as in our irrigated meadows, and its descent into the drains, where the drainage is perfect, washes out acid and other noxious substances naturally generated in the soil, and thus purifies and sweetens it. The beneficial effect of such washing will be readily understood in the case of peat-lands laid down in water-meadow, since, as every one knows, peaty soils abound in matters unfavourable to general vegetation. These

substances are usually in part drawn off by drainage, and in part destroyed by lime and by exposure to the air, before boggy lands can be brought into profitable cultivation.

NATURE OF DRAINAGE WATERS

But it seldom happens that perfectly pure water is employed for the purposes of irrigation. The waters of rivers, as they are diverted from their course for this purpose, are more or less loaded with mud and other fine particles of matter, which are either gradually filtered from them as they pass over and through the soil, or, in the case of floods, subside naturally when the waters come to rest. Or in less frequent cases, the drainings of towns and the water from common sewers, or from the little streams enriched by them, are turned with benefit upon the favoured fields. These are evidently cases of gradual and uniform manuring.

Even where the water employed is clear and apparently undisturbed by mud, it almost always contains ammonia, nitric acid, and other organic and saline substances grateful to the plant in its search for food, and which plants always contrive to extract, more or less copiously, as the water passes over their roots. The purest spring-waters and mountain-streams are never entirely free from impregnations of mineral and vegetable or animal matter. Every fresh access of water, therefore, affords the grass in reality another liquid manuring.

The kind of saline substances which spring-water or that of brooks contains depends upon the nature of the rocks or soils from which it issues or over which runs. In countries where granite or mica-slate abounds, potash and soda, and even magnesia, may be expected in notable quantities; while in limestone districts the

waters are generally charged with lime. The value of the mountain-streams for the purpose of irrigation in limestone districts is so well known, that some have been inclined to undervalue all the constituents of natural waters, and to ascribe little worth as irrigators to the clear waters of brooks and springs which are not rich in lime. This opinion, however, is not in accordance with the results of the analysis of waters which have been profitably employed for irrigation.

Flowing water also drinks in from the air, as it passes along, a portion of the oxygen and carbonic acid of which the atmosphere in part consists. These gaseous substances it brings in contact with the leaves at every moment, or it carries them down to the roots in a form in which they can be readily absorbed by the parts of the plant. It is not only unlikely that, in consequence of this mode of action, even absolutely pure water would act beneficially if employed in irrigating the soil.

Further, the constant presence of water keeps all the parts of the plant in moist state, allows the pores of the leaves and stems to remain open, retards the formation of hard woody fibre, and thus enables the growing vegetable, in the same space of time, to extract a larger supply of food, especially from the air. In other words, it promotes and enlarges its growth.

In the refreshment continually afforded to the plant by a plentiful supply of water—in the removal of noxious substances from the soil in the frequent additions of enriching food, saline, organic or gaseous, to the land in the soft and porous state in which it retains the parts of the plant, the efficiency of irrigation seems almost entirely to consist.

It is known that waters which have passed over the surface of a field become

sensibly less fertilising. This is easily explained by the reasonable supposition that the plants among which they have flowed have deprived them of a portion of their enriching matter.

IMPROVEMENT BY ROTATION OF CROPS

The experiments of Lawes and Gilbert show that soils become exhausted of certain of their constituents sooner than of others. The substance which disappears soonest in the case of certain kinds of cropping is nitrogen; but there are other crops which deal gently with the nitrogen and drawn largely upon some of the mineral ingredients of the soil. During the growth of leguminous crops, nitrogen accumulates in the surface-soil.

If two crops of unlike kinds be sown together, their roots retain the inorganic substances of the soil in different proportions, the one more potash and phosphoric acid perhaps; the other more lime, magnesia, or silica. They thus interfere less with each others than plants of the same kind do which require the same kinds of food in nearly the same proportions.

Or the two kinds of crop grow with different degrees of rapidity or at different periods of the year: while the roots of the one are busy drawing in supplies of inorganic nourishment, chiefly from great depths, those of the other are only able to take up food from the surface-soil.

If each crop demands special substances, or these substances in quantities peculiar to itself, or in some peculiar state of combination, the chances that the soil will be able to supply them are greater the more distant the intervals at which the same crop is grown upon it. Other crops do not demand the same substances in the same proportions; and thus they may gradually accumulate in the soil till it becomes especially favourable to the particular one we wish to grow.

Suppose the soil to contain a certain large supply of all those inorganic substances which plants require, and that the same corn crop is grown upon it for a long series of years, this crop will carry off some of these substances in larger proportion than others, so that year by year the quantity of those which are thus chiefly carried off will become relatively less. Thus at length the soil, for want of these special substances, will become unable to bear a good crop of this kind. Still, though it may still contain a large store of the inorganic substances which other plants do not specially exhaust. Suppose bean or turnip crops raised in the same manner for a succession of years, they would exhaust the soil of a certain set of substances till it became unable to grow them profitably, though still rich perhaps in those things which cereals especially demand.

But grow these crops alternately, then the one crop will draw especially upon one class of substances, the other crop upon another; and thus a much larger produce of each will be reaped from the same soil, and for a much longer period of time. On this principle the benefit of a rotation of crops in an important degree also the capacity of different crops for obtaining their food constituents. It is therefore, not merely the amount of these food constituents which the different crops remove from the soil that has to be taken into account in considering the effect of the rotation of crops, but also the capacity which they possess for absorbing their food from the soil, and in this respect crops differ very markedly. Another important point in considering the rotation of crops is the nature of the crop-residue. This is the chief source of the humus matter in the soil. In this respect crops differ very considerably. Those leaving

the least amount of residue are the root-crops; while those leaving most are clover and grass. Cereals leave a considerable amount of residue, but the quality of this in fertilising a constituent is poorer than in the case of grass, which enriches the soil to a very considerable extent in nitrogen.

IMPROVEMENT BY MANURING

In a state of nature there is a process of enrichment going on in every soil. The surface-soil becomes enriched by a steady accumulation of the elements of fertility. This is due to the fact that the plants growing on the soil collect, by means of their roots, fertilising matter from the deeper soil-layers. At the same time, a certain increase in the total nitrogen of the soil takes place, due to that coming from the atmosphere. This process of enrichment of a soil in nitrogen may go on for a long time. It would seem, however, that there comes a time when the loss by drainage becomes equal to the amount gained from the air, and the amount of nitrogen in the soil no longer increases. When, however, land is under arable cultivation, there is a constant loss of fertilising constituents due to that removed in crops. But the quantity of mineral matter which even the most exhaustive crop removes from the soil is extremely small when compared with the amount which the crop leaves untouched. If, however, crop after crop be taken from the soil, and if no manure be given in return for the matters abstracted therefrom, can such a system be carried on for an indefinite period? Baron Liebig was one of the first to point out that it could not, and that such a system must inevitably, in a state of nature, result in the exhaustion of the land. Indeed in many of his valuable works the great German chemist has drawn very gloomy pictures of the future condi-

tion of agriculture in most civilised countries. Large quantities of food substances consumed in towns, and the effete matters which result therefrom, instead of being returned to the soil from which they were procured, are in the form of sewage discharged into the ocean, and lost to agriculture.

NEED OF MANURING

By repeated growing of crops the nutritive value of the soils decreases. The crops produced upon a farm take out of its soils certain quantities of mineral matters and nitrogen. So to keep these matters in the soils a judicious application of manures is indispensable. The amount of the proper manure to be added to the soil may be known by the chemical analysis of the soil before cultivation, which we now discuss.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF SOIL

Before proceeding to describe the method of soil analysis, we must first find out what substances in the soil are of importance to plants, since the object of analyzing a soil is to determine its fertility, i.e. the amount of plant food substances contained in it.

We have already acquainted with the fact that all plants contain a certain quantity of inorganic material called the ash, and by the ordinary methods of qualitative analysis we can prove that plant ash invariably contains the following substances—Lime, magnesia, potash, soda and iron oxide; phosphoric, hydrochloric, sulphuric and carbonic acids; and silica. With the exception of carbonic acid, these substances do not exist in the air, and the plant must therefore get them from the soil. The relative amounts of these substances in plant ash vary greatly according to the plant, or the organ from which the ash is obtained. Broadly speaking, the husk of seeds contains much lime and phos-

phoric acid, that of stems and leaves, as straw or hay, much potash and silica, and that of wood much potash and carbonic acid. Lime, potash and phosphoric acid are the most abundant constituent matters in the ash. Magnesia, soda, iron oxide, and hydrochloric and sulphuric acids are usually present in comparatively small quantities. Carbonic acid in the ash comes from the burning of the plant's carbon in the process of incineration, while silica is so abundant in every soil that there is no need to estimate its percentage.

NEEDS OF PLANTS FROM SOIL

The most important substances therefore which the soil has to provide for plants are lime, potash, and phosphoric acid. But by examining only the ash, we have omitted to notice another very important constituent of plants which has to be obtained from the soil—nitrogen. This element exists in the air, but in the free state, and it has been proved that most crops cannot directly use it in this state, but must obtain it in the form of compounds from the soil. The amount of nitrogen in plants is large, and we must add it to lime, potash, and phosphoric acid, in our list of the important substances to be supplied to the plant by the soil. In analyzing a soil for practical purposes, these four substances are the chief ones to which we must direct our attention.

In making an analysis of a soil, we may go to work from either of two points of view:— (1) To find out how great a store of plant food substances the soil contains, in which case we require to find the total percentages of lime, potash, phosphoric acid and nitrogen present. (2) To find out the amounts of each of these substances available for plant food at the time of taking the sample. This is a much more difficult matter than to determine the total quantities, for we are not as yet

completely informed of the manner in which plant food substances are dissolved in the soil for absorption by the roots. The total percentage are determined as follows:—

10 grams of the fine dry soil are weighed out into a crucible and dried at 100°C. until there is no further loss of weight. The total loss of weight gives the amount of moisture in the fine soil.

ORGANIC MATTER

The soil in the crucible is then ignited over a small flame, which is gradually turned up until the crucible is raised to a full red heat. During the heating the soil is occasionally stirred with a stiff platinum wire. The treatment burns off all the organic matter humus the percentage of which is calculated from the loss of weight.

POTASH, LIME AND PHOSPHORIC ACID

The ignited soil is now transferred to a beaker, and boiled for half an hour with 100 c.c. of a mixture of strong hydrochloric acid and water, half and half. More water is then added, and the whole is poured on to a filter and washed with hot water. The filtrate is made up to a known volume, say 500 c.c. The lime, potash, &c., are then determined in portions of 100 c.c. by the ordinary methods of quantitative analysis.

INSOLUBLE POTASH

The whole of the lime and phosphoric acid is dissolved by this method, but hydrochloric acid does not extract the whole of the potash. To get all the potash into solution, 10 grams of soil is mixed with pure calcium carbonate and ammonium chloride in a platinum crucible slowly raised to a red heat and kept, at that temperature for an hour. The crucible is then allowed to cool and the contents boiled in water, when all the potash dissolves, and can be estimated in the ordinary way.

TOTAL NITROGEN

To determine the total nitrogen, 10 grams of soils is mixed with soda-lime, and heated in a hard glass tube, the ammonia given off being estimated by any of the usual methods.

In this way we can determine the percentages of water, organic matter, lime, potash, phosphoric acid and nitrogen present in the fine soil.

The percentage of water is required simply to enable us to calculate the percentage of the other substances in the dry soil so that the numbers obtained may be comparable. Suppose, for instance, we find that the fine soil contains 1.35 per cent. of water, then 100 grams of fine soil contain $100 - 1.35$ grams = 98.65 grams of dry soil. Suppose we find that the percentage of potash in the fine soil is .67, we must divide this number by .9865 to get the percentage in the dry soil. Thus percentage in fine soil, .67, divided by .9865 = .68, percentage in dry soil.

The percentages of each constituent may be calculated into lbs. per acre—

Amount of fine dry soil per acre
= 2,439,360 lbs.

Percentage of potash in dry soil as above—.68

Amount of potash per acre
2,439,360

= $\frac{2,439,360}{100} \times .68$ lbs. = 16,600 lbs.

When this method of sampling has not been followed, we may take it as near enough for practical purposes that one acre of dry soil nine inches deep weighs 3,000,000 lbs., and we shall therefore get the weights per acre of each constituent by multiplying the percentage by 3,000,000 i.e., by 30,000. Thus, suppose percentage of phosphoric acid is found to be .185; then weight of phosphoric acid per acre = $.185 \times 30,000$ lbs. = 5550 lbs.

In agricultural analysis of either soils or manures, lime is always expressed as CaO , potash as K_2O , and phosphoric acid as P_2O_5 .

AMOUNT OF PLANT FOODS IN SOILS

The amounts of lime, potash, etc., found by analysis are very variable.

Lime varies from as much as 30 per cent. or more in marls, to less than .5 per cent. Soil containing less than 1 per cent. may be regarded as deficient in that substance.

Potash in clay soils may be as much as 1 per cent., and occasionally rather more, but in light soils it is sometimes less than .1 per cent.

Phosphoric acid varies from about .3 per cent. to less than .1 per cent.

Nitrogen amounts to about .2 per cent. in old pastures, but only to .05 per cent. in some arable lands.

AVAILABLE PLANT FOOD

To estimate the percentages of plant food substance available in the soil at any time is a very difficult matter. Our knowledge of the exact manner in which food salts are dissolved by the soil water for absorption by the root-hairs is not as complete as it might be, nor are we sure that it is the same in all plants. At any rate, the powers possessed by different crops of extracting, say, phosphoric acid from the soil are very different. A soil which contains plenty of phosphoric acid available, say, for wheat, may produce but a poor crop of swedes unless largely dressed with some phosphatic manure. The whole question of availability is therefore a very difficult one in the present state of knowledge. Many attempts have been made to determine the amounts of minerals, i.e., potash and phosphoric acid, available in a soil, such as determining the amounts soluble in dilute hydrochloric acid,

acetic acid and other acids, but the most scientific suggestion is that made quite recently by Dr. Bernard Dyer. Start from the botanical side of the question, argues that if the root hairs exude an acid juice, which exerts a solvent action on food substances in the soil particles, the amounts of these substances available to the plant must depend on the acidity of the root juice exuded. He has determined the acidity of the root juices of all the ordinary agricultural plants, and finds that it is equivalent on the average to the acidity of a one per cent. solution of crystallized citric acid.

He has determined the amounts of potash and phosphoric acid soluble in a one per cent. citric acid solution of this strength present in the soils of the various plots from the Rothamsted permanent barley field, and finds that the amounts soluble agree very well with the amounts of available potash and phosphoric acid, as indicated by known manuring and crop result of each plot.

The method has also been applied to the soils of a number of experimental fields in Norfolk and Suffolk, and the amounts of potash and phosphoric acid dissolved by the one per cent. citric acid solution have agreed in every case with the amounts indicated as available by field experiments.

It therefore appears probable that this method will give us an idea of the amount of mineral food substances available in the soil at any time, though there are still certain difficulties in its practical application, such as the varying availability to different crops.

The method of procedure is to put in a clean Winchester quart 200 grams of fine dry soil, 2 litres of water, and 20 grams of crystallized citric acid, and allow them to stand for seven days and

occasional shaking. At the end of the time the solution is filtered off, and two lots of 500 cc. evaporated down to dryness and ignited to burn off the citric acid. The potash is determined in one and the phosphoric acid in the other by the ordinary methods.

AVAILABLE NITROGEN

The availability of the nitrogen in the soil varies greatly according to the time of year, the amount of rainfall and drainage, and the crop growing on the soil.

At any time most of the nitrogen exists as humus, in which form it is of course insoluble in water, and therefore not available for plant food.

- Under the proper conditions, however, the humus undergoes a series of changes, which will be more fully dealt with later, which convert its nitrogen first into ammonia compounds and then into nitrates.

It is usually accepted that plants absorb their nitrogen from the soil in the form of nitrates, chiefly nitrate of lime, so that to determine the amount of nitrogen available we must determine the amount of nitrogen present as nitrates. But ammonia changes to nitrates so rapidly in the soil, that nitrogen in the form of ammonia may also be taken as available. Since changes in the state of the nitrogen occur in a soil on keeping, both nitrates and ammonia must be estimated in a perfectly fresh, undried sample.

EXTRACTION OF NITRATES

The percentage of nitrogen as nitrate in a soil is determined as follows:—500 grams of the soil is placed in a deep funnel at the bottom of which is a perforated porcelain plate covered with a filter paper. 50 c.c. of water is poured on to the soil, and allowed to stand for five or ten minutes. The funnel must be inserted through a cork into a bottle with a side tube which

can be connected with an air-pump. The pump is set to work, and the water sucked out of the soil into the bottle. A second 50 cc. is now added, and sucked through as before. The nitrates so are soluble and easily washed out of a soil, that the water sucked through carries with it all the nitrates, which can then be estimated, after evaporating the solution, by any of the ordinary methods. The amount of nitrogen found as nitrate will vary with the time of year, the temperature, the rainfall, etc.

ESTIMATION OF AMMONIA IN SOILS

The ammonia present in a soil at any time may be determined as follows:—200 grams of the soil is placed in a flask connected with a condenser, two litres of water perfectly free from ammonia is added, with two grams of magnesia. 500 cc. of water is distilled from the flask into a receiver containing a measured volume of standard sulphuric acid. The ammonia can then be estimated from the amount of acid neutralized, and so we can calculate the percentage of nitrogen as ammonia contained in the soil. The percentage found will vary greatly, as in the case of nitrates.

The nitrogen as nitrate, added to that as ammonia, may be taken as the total nitrogen available at the time of sampling the soil.

After chemically analysing the soils one may be able to ascertain the food requirements of a particular crop and then apply the suitable manure to the soil to supply the food of the plant for its nourishment and growth. A brief description of food requirements of crops is given below.

FOOD REQUIREMENTS OF CROPS

The amount of fertility removed from an acre of soil producing average crops varies between wide limits. Crops which

remove the most fertility do not always require the most help in obtaining their food. This is because the amount of plant food assimilated is not a measure of the powers of crops to obtain food. An acre of corn requires over twice as much nitrogen as an acre of wheat, but wheat often leaves the soil in a more impoverished condition than corn, because corn has greater power to procure nitrogen and utilize that formed by nitrification after the wheat crop has completed its growth. The available nitrogen if not utilized by a crop may be lost in various ways. It was formerly believed that plant food in the matured crop indicated in kind and amount of fertilizing ingredients to apply and that a correct system of manuring required a return to the soil of all elements removed in the crop. Experiments show this view to be incorrect. For example, an acre of wheat contains 35 pounds of nitrogen, while an acre of clover contains 70 pounds, if 70 pounds of nitrogen were applied to an acre of clover and 35 pounds to an acre of wheat, poor results would follow, because clover can obtain its own nitrogen while wheat is unable to do so, and the 35 pounds would not necessarily come in contact with the roots so that all could be assimilated. While the amount of plant food removed in crops cannot serve as the basis for their manuring valuable results are obtained from study of the different elements of fertility which they contain. Moreover, the influence of the crop upon the soil and the power of the crop to obtain its food, must also be considered.

It is believed that crops procure some of their food from minerals insoluble in water. It is a fact that plants have the power of rendering a portion of their food soluble, provided it does not exist in forms too inert to undergo chemical change. According to the experiment of Liebig it

was found that 92 per cent of the potash was obtained from forms insoluble in water.

The soluble plant food from a fertile soil is not generally sufficient for plant growth. When oats, wheat, and barley are seeded in prepared sand and watered with the hatching from a pot of fertile soil they made only a limited growth. Oats grown in prepared sand and watered with soil hatching assimilated only 25 per cent as much phosphoric acid as plants grown in fertile soil. The character and concentration of the soil solution are, however, important factors in crop production and some soils may contain sufficient amounts of water soluble elements to produce crops. The relative amounts of food which plants take from the soil solution and that which they render soluble have not been extensively investigated.

In the roots of the plants there are various organic acids and salts. Between the roots and the soil is a layer of water. The plant sap and the said water are separated by plant tissue, which serves as a membrane. All of the conditions are favourable for osmosis. The sap from the roots finds its way into the soil in exchange for some of the soil water. The acid and other compounds, excreted by the roots, act upon the mineral matter, rendering portions of it soluble, and then it is taken up by the plant. Different plants contain different kinds and amounts of solvents, as well as present different areas of root surface to act upon the soil, and the result is that agricultural crops have different powers of assimilating food. This action of living plant roots upon soil is a digestion process which is somewhat akin to the digestion of food by animals.

Plants not only possess the power of rendering a portion of their food soluble, but also they are able to select, and to reject that which is unnecessary. For example, wheat grown on a soil with

equally abundant and soluble forms as potash will contain relatively little soda compared with the potash; also many sea-weeds contain more potash than soda, although the sea water in which they grow has an excess of sodium salts.

For the feeding of crops, a nutritive solution is desirable, and the soil should have a good stock of reserve material that can be utilized either by action of the plant roots or readily pass into solution in the soil water.

CEREAL CROPS

Cereal crops contain a high per cent of silica and evidently possess the power of acting upon some of the simpler silicates in the soil, liberating the base elements and using them as food, while the silica is deposited in the outer surface of the straw. Although the cereal crops do not remove large amounts of total nitrogen from the soil, they require special help in obtaining this element. There is, however, a great difference among the cereals as to power of assimilating nitrogen. Next to nitrogen, they stand most in need of phosphoric acid. There exists in many soils a greater deficiency of available phosphoric acid than of potash, although cereal crops are better able to procure these elements than they are of nitrogen. The humic phosphates are utilized by nearly all the cereals.

WHEAT

This crop is more exacting in its food requirements than barley, oats or rye. It is comparatively a weak feeding crop, and the soil should be in a higher state of fertility than for other grains.

The food requirements of wheat are such that it should be given a favoured position in the rotation. It is not advisable to have wheat follow barley, because the soil will be too porous, and barley being

a stronger feeding crop leaves the land in a poor state as to available plant food. When corn has been well-manured, wheat may follow. The food requirements of wheat are best satisfied following a light, oats, which have been grown on heavy sod, or following corn that has been well manured. When wheat is judiciously grown in a rotation and farm manures are used, it is not an exhausting crop. Light dressings of farm manure may be used on land that is being prepared for wheat. On many soils, dressings of phosphate and potash, either alone or in combination, materially increase the yield and improve the quality of the crop. Nitrogen alone does not give as good results as when combined with minerals.

RICE

The growth of paddy requires water. As a rule manure is not considered essential, when water is sufficient, unless the land is poor. But the production may be increased by the application of, fertilizers such as bone meal, kainit and farm yard manure. Assuming the average yield to be about 900 lbs per acre neglecting the amounts absorbed by the stubble and the roots, such a crop removes the soil about 29.33 lbs nitrogen, 9.14 lbs phosphoric acid and 49.69 lbs potash. So the addition of 1 to 1½ cwt. of bone dust and 1½ cwt kainit to the ordinary 4 or 5 tons of cattle manure on well-cultivated wet lands will produce a bumper crop and on dry lands a mixture of 1 cwt bone dust and 1 cwt. kainit will prove equally successful and astonish the surrounding farmers by the weight and the excellence of the crops. Where cattle manure are not available 3 to 5 cwt of groundnut or castor cake meal, 1 cwt of bonedust and 1 to 2 cwts. of kainit should be employed, carefully mixed, and spread evenly over the field after the grasses have rotted, and

the return will be so great as not merely to pay for the cost of the manures, but there will be an extra profit.

BARLEY

While wheat and barley belong to the same general class of cereals, they differ greatly in the habits and food requirements. Barley is a stronger feeding crop. has greater root development near the surface, and can utilize food in a cruder form. Barley thrives best on a open soil, and has greater nitrogen assimilative power than wheat. Barley, however, responds liberally to manuring, particularly to nitrogenous manures.

OATS

Oats can obtain food under more adverse conditions than either barley or wheat. They are also less exacting as to the physical condition of the soil. The oat plant will adopt itself to either sandy or clayey soil, and will thrive in the presence of alkaline matter or humic acid when wheat would be destroyed. In a rotation, oats usually occupy a position less favoured by manures, they are, however, greatly benefited by fertilizers, particularly those of a nitrogenous nature. The oat crop responds liberally to manuring.

MAIZE

Under ordinary conditions maize requires most help in obtaining phosphoric acid. It removes a large amount of gross fertility, and if its production, is long continued without the use of manures it impoverishes the soil. Its habits of growth is met that it generally leaves an average soil in better mechanical condition for succeeding crops. Maize is not injured as are many grain crops by heavy applications of stable manure and does not produce waste products which are destructive to itself. The conditions are better for wheat culture after one or two corn crops have been

removed from rich newly broken soil. The food requirements of maize are satisfied by applications of stable manure occasionally re-enforced with a little nitrogen and phosphoric acid, and in the case of some soil potash. After clover, it gives excellent returns, and when maize is the chief market crop it should be favoured by having the best position in the rotation.

POTATOES

Potatoes are surface feeders, and when grown continuously upon the same soil without manure, the yield per acre decreases more rapidly than that of any other farm crop. Potatoes require liberal general manuring re-enforced with wood ashes or other potash fertilizer. In the rotation they should follow grain or pasture, provided the fertility of the soil is kept up. Commercial fertilizers for potato production should contain a fair amount of available nitrogen (2 to 3 percent) and a more liberal supply of phosphoric acid and potash.

COTTON

On average soils cotton stands in need first of phosphoric acid and second of nitrogen. It is most able to obtain potash. Organic nitrogen as cottonseed meal and stable manure appear equally as effective as nitric nitrogen. Phosphoric acid must be applied in the most available forms, although the crop uses but little. The fertilizers should be drilled in at the time of planting. The use of green manuring crops as cowpeas, with an application of marl or limestone gives beneficial results. There are but few crops which respond so readily to fertilizers as cotton. It does not remove a large amount of fertility, but when not systematically grown in a rotation exhausts the soil in the same way as when grain is grown continuously.

LEGUMINOUS CROPS

For leguminous crops potash and lime fertilizers have been found of special value. Farm manure on sandy or heavy soils will materially assist in the production of clover.

SUGARCANE

Sugarcane grows in all kinds of soils but the best canes grow at the junction of old and new alluvia on the sides of streams and rivulets. These are red clay loam soils specially rich in mineral matters. For growing superior varieties of canes the soil should be supplied with a quantity of redust and mineral phosphate, which should be applied to the one in 5 years at the rate of 10 maunds per acre. The fertility may also be increased by the use of sulphate of ammonia or saltpetre. But phosphatic manure is indispensable for sugarcane in addition to cattle-dung, oil-cake, where the land is annually renovated with silt, and where such land is utilised for growing an aquatic variety of sugarcane, special manuring is needed.

JUTE

With the exception of rocky, laterite and poor sandy soils, all soils are adapted for jute cultivation. Rich loam, of course, gives the best result. The coarse varieties grow luxuriantly in low lying lands, but a better quality of fibre is obtained from upland. Pulses, oats, barley, wheat, tobacco and Aus paddy are grown on such soils in rotation. Where there is net soil no manuring is required. Elsewhere cowdung at the rate of 150 maunds per acre may be applied where necessary. Fibre crops are appreciably benefited by cowdung manure, except those belonging to the leguminous order.

TOBACCO

Tobacco requires particularly good and heavy manuring, as it is richer in

nitrogen and in mineral constituents than almost any other crop. The most appropriate manures for the cultivation of tobacco crop are wood ash, saltpetre, gypsum, and superphosphate of lime.

TEA

Tea is an exhausting plant. The exhaustion should be covered by the application of suitable manure. The manures specially applicable to this crop are saltpetre and castor cake. But rape-cake, ashes, lime, salt, soot, alum, sulphate of copper, catechu, etc., and especially the first five which have manurial value, should be applied, as well as saltpetre or castor-cake, for renovating the soil and ridding it of insect and fungus pests.

GARDEN CROPS

For general garden purposes, there should be a liberal supply of plant food. Well-composted farm manure can advantageously be re-enforced with commercial fertilizers. A liberal use of manure insures not only the maximum yield, but crops of the best quality. Maturity of crops also is influenced by fertilizers. A suitable fertilizer for general garden purposes may contain the following:—

Nitrogen	4 p. c.
Phosphoric acid	8 "
Potash	10 "
Farm manure	rest.

To meet the requirement of special crops such as cabbage, etc. an additional dressing of nitrate of soda may be used.

For early maturing garden crops, a fair but not excessive amount of nitrogen should be applied, also a liberal supply of phosphates will be found advantageous. Some garden crops thrive best when their food is in organic forms as the humate compounds derived from farm manures. A continuous supply of available plant food is thus furnished to the growing crop.

Onions are benefited by a generous dressing of soluble nitrogen. Tomatoes require general fertilizing, for early maturity, nitrogen, as nitrate of soda, is beneficial, but an excess should be avoided; for late maturity, farm manures may be used. For general garden purposes, a complete fertilizer is preferable to an amendment, as a better balanced growth is secured which favourably affects both the yield and the quality.

FRUIT TREES

In the manuring of fruit trees, the first object is to produce thrifty trees, as subsequent fertilizing for fruit will not give satisfactory results with poorly grown and partially developed trees. In order to promote growth, a liberal supply of a complete fertilizer should be used, and the soil should be kept in the best mechanical condition. The quality of the fruit is often adversely affected by a scanty supply of plant food. A quick acting fertilizer, containing kainit, nitrate of soda, and dissolved phosphate rock, should be used in the spring, followed if necessary by a light dressing of some manure which yields up its fertility more slowly. An excess of nitrogen, however, should be avoided. Stone fruits are benefited by the addition of lime to the fertilizer. Lime fertilizers impart hardness to fruit trees.

SMALL FRUITS

On account of the comparatively limited bearing period of small fruits, the land should be brought to a high state of productiveness and good physical condition by liberal use of farm manures previous to planting. Quick acting fertilizers are the most suitable for small fruits. Dressing of nitrate of soda 50 to 100 lbs per acre can be applied early in the season to promote leaf activity. This should be followed by an application of a general fertilizer containing about 3 per cent of available

nitrogen, 8 per cent of phosphoric acid and 10 per cent of potash. The amount used should range from 200 to 400 lbs per acre until the character and needs of the soil are determined.

ROTATION OF CROPS AND CONSERVATION OF SOIL FERTILITY

The object of systematic rotation of crops is to conserve the fertility of the soil and at the same time to produce maximum yields. In order to accomplish this, the food requirements of different crops must be met by good cultivation and judicious manuring. Rotations must be planned according to the nature of the soil and the system of farming that is to be followed. For general grain farming a different rotation is required than for exclusive dairying. Whatever the nature of farming, the whole farm should gradually undergo a systematic rotation. If the farm is uneven in soil texture, different rotations may be practised on the various parts. There is no way in which soils are more rapidly depilated of fertility than by the continued culture of one crop.

When remunerative crops can no longer be produced, the soil is said to be exhausted. Soil exhaustion may be due either to a lack of plant food, to bacterial products, or to poor physical conditions arising from the soil being temporarily out of a one-crop system and poor methods of cultivation.

PRINCIPLES INVOLVED IN CROP ROTATION

There are a few fundamental principles with which all rotations should conform. Briefly stated these are:—

1. Deep and shallow-rooted crops should alternate.
2. Humus consuming and humus producing crops should alternate.
3. Crops should be rotated so as to make the best use of the preceding crop residue.

Having dealt with the growing of all the major crops we now devote our attention to the cultivation of kitchen vegetables. And for this purpose a reproduction of a chart as recommended by the well-reputed Globe Nursery of Calcutta will surely go a long way in solving this difficult problem.

"BHADOI" VEGETABLES (Summer & Rains).

Name of Crop.	Nature of soil.	Method of sowing or planting.	Period of showing or planting.	Period of harvest.	Seed-rate per acre.	Approximate outturn per acre.
Bristol (Begun)	Well-drained loam.	Early varieties transplanted in April-May and late varieties in July-August. Distance 3' each way.	For early varieties seed-beds should be prepared in Feb-March & for late varieties in May-June.	Early varieties, August to February. Late varieties, October to April.	4 to 6 chhataks	100 to 150 mda.
Lady's Finger (Dhencas)	Loam	Seeds should be sown 2' to 3' apart in lines.	Middle of April to middle of June.	Middle of June to middle of August.	3 to 4½ seers	60 to 80 mda.
Goard (Lan)	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	Middle of May to middle of July.	After 3 or 4 months	½ to 1 seer	100 to 125 mda.
Pumpkin (Kamra)	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	March-April and May	After 3 or 4 months	½ to 1 seer	100 to 125 mda.
Sauke Goard (Chiklinga).	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	Middle of April to middle of June.	August-September	1 to 1½ seers	90 to 100 mda.
Goard (White)	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	Middle of February to middle of April.	After 4 months	1 to 1½ seers	90 to 100 mda.
Goard (Kamra)	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	Middle of February to middle of April and May	After 3 months	½ to 1 seer	90 to 100 mda.
Goard (Bitter)	Loam	Seeds should be sown in beds 6' apart.	Middle of April to middle of July.	After 2 to 3 months of planting.	1½ to 2 seers	100 to 150 mda.
King's (Pala Jhinga).	Sandy loam	Seeds are sown in beds 4' to 6' apart.	Middle of April to middle of July.	In the rains	½ to 1 seer	80 to 100 mda.
Kankri	Sandy loam	Seeds are sown in beds 4' to 5' apart.	Middle of March to middle of May.	Middle of November to middle of January.	4½ to 6 seers	90 to 120 mda.
Country beans (Sheem).	Sandy loam	Seeds are sown in beds 4' to 6' apart.	Middle of May to middle of July.	After 3 months	4 to 6 seers	90 to 120 mda.
Broad beans (Bakia Sheem).	Loam	Seeds are sown 8" to 12" apart.	Middle of June to middle of August.	After 2 months	2 to 4 seers	125 to 150 mda.
Radish (Moola)	Sandy loam	Seeds are broadcast	Middle of March to middle of July.	After 4 months	6 to 8 tolas	—
Cape Gooseberry (Tepari).	Loam	2' apart	Middle of April to middle of June.	Middle of June to middle of August.	4 to 6 chhataks to 8 chhataks.	—
Uchakhe	Loam	3' to 4' apart	Middle of February to middle of April.	After 1½ months	—	—
Sas - Note, Pata, Danta, Saka, etc.	All kinds of soils	Seeds are broadcast	Middle of May to July	After 3 months	—	—
"RABI" VEGETABLES (Winter Season).						
Bristol (Kull variety).	Loam	Seedlings, transplanted 2'-2½' each away.	October to November	After 5 months	4 to 6 chhataks	100 to 150 mda.
Beans (Bhukaya)	Sandy loam	Seeds sown 5' apart	Middle of December to middle of March.	After 2 or 3 months	1½ to 2 seers	100 to 150 mda.
	Loam	Seeds sown 6' apart	Middle of September to middle of January.	After 3 months	½ to 1 seer	100 to 125 mda.

Seed potatoes	Sandy loam	Cuttings are planted 3' apart.	September to October	February to March
Radishes	Loam	3' to 4' apart	Middle of October to middle of December.	1,000 to 5,000 cuttings.
Radish (Moola)	Sandy loam	Seeds are broadcast	Middle of September to middle of November.	100 to 125 mda.
Pumpkin	Loam	Seeds shown 6' apart	Middle of September to middle of November.	100 to 125 mda.
Seak-Palam	Loam	Seeds are broadcast	September to November	125 to 150 mda.
			After 2 months	100 to 125 mda.

ENGLISH VEGETABLES.

Name.	Months for sowing.	Quantity of seed required to sow in 100 yards row.	Whether sown straight to the land or to be raised in seed-beds.	Distance between drills and plants.	Remarks.
Beans (Runner and broad).	September to November.	3 lbs.	Straight to the land	1' between each seed in rows.	
Beans (Dwarf, Kidney).	August to November.	3 lbs.	Straight to the land	2½' to 2' respectively	
Beet	August to November.	3 oz.	Straight to the land or in seed-bed.	1' and 10" respectively	Frequent waterings with liquid manure are beneficial. Soil should be kept loose.
Cabbage	August to December.	1 oz.	In seed-bed	2' each	Watering essential.
Carrot	August to November.	1½ oz.	Straight to the land	6" to 7" each	Should be sown in drills, requires a deeply worked soil.
Caiflower	July to Nov. ember.	1 oz.	Seed-bed	2½' each	Watering is essential. Soil should be well worked up. It will require earthing up. The variety is suited for early showing as it can stand rains much better than imported seeds. May be sown from middle of June to end of August.
Kaekhol	Sept. to Nov.	1 oz.	Seed-bed	1' each	Watering and manuring essential.
Lettuce	Sept. to Dec.	1½ oz.	Seed-bed	1' and 6"	Soil should be kept loose. Frequent waterings are essential.
Onion	October to November.	3 oz.	Seed-bed and also in ground.	5" to 9" each	Heavy manuring and frequent irrigation necessary. Stakes should be put in for the crop to climb up.
Peas	August to December.	3 lbs.	Straight to the ground	2' and 4' to 6"	
Radish	July to Jan.	8 oz.	In ground	Broadcast.	
Spinach	Sept. to Dec.	3 oz.	Straight to the ground	1' and 9" respectively.	
Tomato	July to Decem-ber.	½ oz.	Seed-bed	2½' to 2' respectively	
Turnip	September to Decem-ber.	1½ oz.	Straight to the ground	6" apart	Plants should be supported by sticks. May be planted on ridges.

4. Crops should be rotated so as to use nitrogen indirectly from atmospheric sources and to promote desirable bacterial activities in the soil.

5. Crops should be rotated so as to keep the soil in the best mechanical condition.

6. In arid regions, crops should be rotated so as to make the best use of the available water.

7. An even distribution of farm labour could be secured by a rotation.

8. Farm manures and fertilizers could be used in the rotation where they will do the most good.

9. Rotations should be planned so as to produce fodder for stock, and so that every year there will be some important crop to be sold.

In dealing with the subject of rotations it is best to take actual problems as they present themselves and plan rotations that will best meet all of the conditions.

CONSERVATION OF FERTILITY

In order to conserve the fertility of the soil, not only must a systematic rotation be practical, but a proper use must be made of the crops produced when crops are sold from the farm and no restoration made, soils are gradually depleted of their fertility. No soil has ever been found that will continue to produce crops without the use of manures. Many soils give large yields for long periods without manuring, but they are never able to compete in productiveness with similar soils that have been systematically topped and manured. With a fertile soil the decline in fertility is so gradual that it is not observed; careful records are kept of the yields from year to year.

The use made of crops whether as food for stock or sold directly from the farm determines the future crop producing power of the soil. With different systems of

farming different uses are made of crops. When exclusive grain farming is followed there is no restoration of fertility, while in the case of stock farming, the manure produced contains fertility, in proportion to the food consumed. If good care is taken of the manures and in place of the grains sold, mill products are purchased and fed, there is no loss but often a gain of fertility.

Losses of fertility from farms are determined by the products sold, the care of the manure, and the fertility in the materials purchased and used on the farm. If an account are kept of the income and outgo of the fertility it would be found that with some systems the soil is gaining, while with others a rapid decline is occurring. In studying the income and outgoing of fertility, it is necessary to calculate the amounts of three principal elements, nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash in the crops and other products sold.

In the handling of manure it is impossible to prevent losses, but it is possible to reduce them to very small amounts. Hence in the calculations, a loss of 3 p.c. is allowed for mechanical waste and for uneven distribution of the manure; that is, in addition to the fertility sold from the farm a mechanical loss of 3 per cent is allowed for all crops raised and consumed as food by stock.

EROSION AND RECLAMATION

Erosion of soils may be caused by water, river and sea waves. It constitutes some of the most spectacular examples of total or partial loss of the soil and all that stands on it. Destruction of forest covers by deliberate human interference leads to increased run off of rain water and its diminished seepage and storage in the soil. The decomposing forest litter is no longer replenished by fresh falls of leaves or decaying roots and plant remains, and the soil organic matter and other plant nutri-

ents gradually diminish. The structure of the soil suffers; the run off increases, loosens the soil and transports it, sifting the sand and heavier particles in the process which are deposited near the scene of destruction and the finer parts go to make the streams turbid to be deposited far away. The muddy waters of our rivers carrying large quantities of silt and clay tell their own tale. The soil and all that stands upon it have been lost. And one of the first effects of these is to block the streams. No longer can the rain water be stored to feed the streams gradually over long periods after the monsoons are over. The increased run off, especially after heavy downpours, comes in a sudden rush and often gets blocked in the silted streams. The water develops power enough to cause devastating floods. The effects catch the eye when erosion has wrought its destruction, but the initial processes began to work long before. This type of water erosion arising from destruction of forest and grass cover has been going on for ages. The forest cover or a cover of suitable vegetation, e.g. natural grasses, has to be recreated in these eroded regions and nature must be allowed to heal the wounds by setting in motion processes of soil formation and growth of vegetation.

There are other types of water erosion though not so spectacular in their effects accepting some form of river or bank erosion. The latter has been responsible for weeping away flourishing towns and villages. This sort of soil erosion may be minimized by training the rivers so that they may be utilized for drainage and irrigation.

A much less slower form of water erosion which is cumulative in its effects is therefore insidious, is that going on gently sloping lands and in the plains

all through the country. Cross country railway journey bring home to us the extent of such erosion. Apart from partial or total loss of soil, these gentler forms and soluble salts and their effects on fertility of soil and its fertility can be very serious. The tendency to erosion in cultivated lands and areas without adequate forest cover depends on agricultural practices, as also on the soil, topography, the cover of vegetation and distribution and intensity of rainfall. These conditions vary according to locality, and control measures must be adopted to suit them. A good cover of vegetation and suitable methods of soil management aiming at a diminution of the velocity and volume of run off, such as bunding, terracing, contour cultivation, strip cropping, tanks and ditches, drainage channels with a good grass cover, or of brick and cement or concrete, and preservation of soil structure, form the basis of measures for the control of water erosion.

Erosion also results from wind or wave action but much less information exists regarding their extent in India, partly because they are not so extensive as the others. Sand dunes are known in several parts of the country. Dust storms in summer are common experiences. One can see from the hills, e.g. in Simla, thick palls of dust resembling clouds which hang in the air and stretch over considerable distances.

Conservation of soil fertility is another fundamental aspect of soil reclamation. Crops and plants extract their nutrients from the soil. And the losses thus caused together with those caused by erosion, by climatic factors and by leaching by water must be made good in order that its productivity can be raised to and maintained at its optimum. Different plants make different demands on the soil. The imma-

and reserve powers of different soils meet these demands vary. The soil has its natural powers of transformation and recuperation regarding some aspects of fertility. These powers also show variations.

Plants growing in natural associations in soil and climate ensure a balance between depletion and recuperation. The ideal condition is often attained in virgin forests and in steppes or prairies. The different types of soils develop under suitable climatic and geological conditions under deciduous forests and perennial natural grasses. Grasses and legumes conserve organic matter and nitrogen and enrich the soil both physically and chemically. Cultivated crops make a great demand on the soil, thereby causing depletion of the stock of nutrients in the soil and deterioration of soil structure—the latter factor renders it more liable to erosion losses.

In temperate climates blessed with an even distribution of a moderate annual rainfall, natural forces are favourable to the maintenance of organic matter (humus) and nitrogen at a high level and of beneficial microbial activity. These are inter-related. Manures, and fertilisers supply the needs of extractive farming. When soil depleting crops are used, rest and recuperation from their depleting effects have to be ensured also by suitable systems of rotation which allow soil conserving crops to act in turn with soil depleting ones. The peculiarities of Indian climatic conditions—determined by a rainfall, often heavy downpours, concentrated within about four months; by a high mean temperature over the major part of the country; and by a relatively dry winter and a hot summer both accompanied by bright sunshine, which follow the rainy season—are most favourable to the destruction of organic matter and soil nitrogen, to leach-

ing by water, to deterioration of soil structure, to erosion, and to interruption of beneficial microbial activity. These peculiarities together with the failure of rains, especially a succession of such failures, excessive rainfall localised in short periods of time, floods, and insect pests constitute the most important limiting factors in our crop production. Every effort has therefore to be directed to find out and use all possible methods aiming at the control of erosion, the maintenance of optimum humus and nitrogen status of our soils, and also optimum moisture relationships. Cultivated crops are in general an unavoidable evil so far as conservation of soil is concerned. Continuous attempts have to be made to evolve better methods of rotation and soil management, including treatment with lime, manures and fertilisers so as to secure not only the optimum yields and quality of crops but also the conservation of soil fertility and soil structure.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion of this article it is not out of place to mention that better farming is quite possible in this country, but not without the levelling up of the cultivators' general and special education in improvements and modernized methods. The increased production of essential crops cannot be brought about by the antiquated processes or without a transformation of the mentality and character of the cultivators by the inspiring influences of education. This is, therefore, the crux of our agricultural problem. The cultivators must be awakened to the realities and demands of the present situation. His efficiency cannot increase under the deadening weight of gross ignorance. The farming industry stands to suffer, while its units are wedded to old, obsolete notions and practices.

The raison d'être of the Agricultural Department is to bring the message of new developments to the doors of the agriculturists. But in this the Department has failed to justify itself. The distribution of stray packets of seeds or the display of novel implements and processes at exhibitions does not mean that a link of sympathy has been forged by the Department with the peasants. It is to be regretted that the distance between the two has not been to any practical purpose abridged. An officer of the department will not be worth his salt if he conducts himself in such a manner as not to be regarded by the cultivators as their guide and friend. There must be a spirit of comradeship between the two. And this cannot be an accomplished fact unless the officer thoroughly enters into the feeling of the ryot and carries on his work with the saving grace of sympathy. It is of the

utmost importance, therefore, that officer should be well acquainted not only with the special conditions of Indian agriculture but also with the psychology of the peasant's mind.

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-PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPES

TOOTH CAVITY FILLING

Zinc Oxide	4	dr.
Thymol Iodide	5	gr.
Creosote Oil	10	drops.
Clove Oil	12	"
Lanolin, enough to make a solid paste.		
Mix		

EYE ANTISEPTIC OINTMENT

Sulphanilamide	10	parts.
Sulphathiazole	10	"
Proflavin	0.025	part.
Distilled water	5	parts.
Anhydrous lanolin, enough to make	100	"
Mix		

CHEST RUB SALVE

Petrolatum	1	lb.
Hard Paraffin	1	oz.
Eucalyptus Oil	2	fl. oz.
Menthol	4	dr.
Cassia Oil	1	"
Spirit Turpentine	4	"

Melt the petrolatum and paraffin wax together in a double boiler and then add the menthol. Remove from the heat, stir, and cool a little; stir in the oils, add turpentine and the menthol. When it begins to thicken pour into tins and cover.

SYRUP OF FERROUS PHOSPHATE WITH QUININE & STRYCHNINE (I.P.L.)

Iron filings	8.6	grams.
Phosphoric acid	35	cc.
Strychnine hydrochloride	0.3	grams.
Quinine hydrochloride	13.3	"
Dilute hydrochloric acid	50.5	c.c.
Simple syrup	660.0	"
Glycerin	140	"
Distilled water, sufficient to produce	1000	"

Dilute the phosphoric acid with 70 c.c. of distilled water; add it to the iron filings in a flask of suitable size, and heat on a waterbath until the filings are dissolved; add to this a solution of strychnine hydrochloride and quinine hydrochloride in the 50 c.c. of dilute hydrochloric acid; filter it into the syrup and glycerin previously mixed and pass sufficient distilled water to produce the required volume.

Dispensation No.

48040

PURGATIVE

Kaldana, powdered
Rock Salt
Dried Ginger (Sonth)
Mix, Dose: 1 dram with milk
Vol. XLII, No. 493.



PILES WITH CONSTIPATION

Chebulic myrobalans	1	dr.
Beleric myrobalans	1	"
Embellic myrobalans	1	"
Aniseed (Sonth)	1	"
Ginger (Sonth)	1	"
Senna leaves (Salsa)	1	"
Black salt	1	"
Pulverize and mix.		
Dose:—1 dr. in hot milk at bed time.		

BRONCHITIS PILLS

Cinnamon	60	grains.
Aniseed	60	"
Liquorice	60	"
Raisins, without stones	180	"
Sweet almonds	60	"
Bitter almonds	60	"
Sugar, refined	60	"

Powder all drugs well and make into a pill mass with little water. Then make pills of 5 grains each.

LIQUID EXTRACT OF BAEI

Bael, bruised	1000	grams.
Chloroform water	15000	c.c.
Alcohol, (90 p.c.) sufficient to produce	1000	"

Macerate the bruised bael for 12 hours in 5000 c.c. of chloroform water; pour off and reserve the clear liquid; repeat the maceration a second and a third time for 4 hours in each case, using for each maceration 5000 c.c. of the chloroform water and strain the mixed liquids. Evaporate to 750 c.c.; cool; add sufficient alcohol (90 p.c.) to produce the required volume. Set aside for 48 hours and filter.

Dose:—60 to 120 minims.

LIQUID EXTRACT OF JAMBUL

Jambul stone, in coarse powder	3000	grams.
Alcohol	2000	c.c.
Water	1000	"

Mix 1800 c.c. of alcohol with 900 c.c. of water, and having moistened the powder with with 1050 c.c. of the mixture pack it firmly in a cylindrical percolator, then add enough menstruum to saturate the powder and leave a stratum above it. When the liquid begins to drop from the percolator, close the lower orifice, and, having closely covered the percolator, macerate for 48 hours. Then allow the percolation to proceed, gradually adding menstruum, using the same proportions of alcohol and water as before until the jambul is exhausted. Reserve the first 2550 c.c. of water.

Distil off the alcohol from the remainder by means of a waterbath, and evaporate the residue to a soft extract, dissolve this in the reserve portion, and add enough menstruum to make the fluid extract measure 3000 c.c.

—Recipes for Small Manufactu

COMPACT ROUGE

Carmine No. 40 powder	5 parts.
Armenian bole	35 "
Maize starch	130 "
Precipitated chalk	220 "
Talc	600 "
Perfume compound	10 "

Mix and sift through 200 mesh sieve. Triturate with about 25 per cent. of excipient which is made by dissolving dextrin or sugar in a small amount of water the mixture is finally compressed into tablet form.

IMITATION GOLD

Copper	90 parts.
Gold	2½ "
Aluminium	7½ "

Melt the copper and the gold in a crucible composed of refractory material or if a mixture of unburnt fire-clay and dust of fire bricks, glass pots or seggars, and when the metals are fluid the aluminium is added. When not more than 2 lbs. of the alloy are made at one time the mass is kept in a fused state for half an hour, about 4½ oz. of borax being added as a flux. The melted mass is then poured into ingots.

This alloy is used for making cheap imitation gold ware, resembling gold in colour and not tarnishing in the air.

SILVER PLATING POWDER

This is intended for use on brass and copper articles.

Chloride of silver	1 ounce.
Pearlash	3 ounces.
Common salt	1½ "
Whiting	1 ounce.

These ingredients should be in as fine a powder as possible to reduce them and thoroughly mixed together.

The article to be silvered should be thoroughly cleaned and wiped dry. Then with a soft piece of leather, that has been dampened in water and dipped in the powder thoroughly rub the article to be plated so that every section receives an even coat. It should then be washed well in hot water and wiped dry.

CASHEW NUT TOFFEE

Take 2 lbs. sugar and 150 cashewnuts; skin the latter like almonds, in hot water, and chop up with a knife or mincing machine. Make a syrup of sugar with 2 tumblerfuls of water, then add nuts and cook till the whole crystallises; put into a filtered plate and when partly cut into squares or diamond shapes.

STAINLESS STEEL SOLDERING FLUX

(A) Boric acid	5 parts
Potassium fluoride	5 "
(B) Hydrochloric acid	5 parts
Distilled water	5 "

Make a thin paste of (A) and (B) and apply to the joint.

DOG SHAMPOO

Soft Soap	8 parts
Glycerin	2½ "
Alcohol	2 "
Phenol	½ part
Eucalyptus oil	¼ "
Water to make	35 parts

Dissolve the soft soap in the water by shaking. Then cool and mix the other ingredients.

ANTI-PYORRHEA TOOTH POWDER

Calcium Glycerophosphate	2 parts.
Common salt (sodium chloride)	2 "
Animal charcoal	1 part.

Grind each separately into fine powder and mix.

ADHESIVE FOR CELLOPHANE

Gum arabic	16.5 parts.
Glycerin	29.5 "
Water	49.5 "
Formaldehyde	4.5 "

Dissolve the gum arabic in the water and mix the glycerin. Lastly add the formaldehyde and bottle.

BOILER COMPOUND

Soda ash	87 parts.
Trisodium phosphate	10 "
Starch	1 part.
Tannic acid	2 parts.

Use powdered materials, mix well and then pass through a fine sieve.

MOSQUITO REPELLING OIL

Cedar oil	2 fl. oz.
Citronella oil	4 fl. oz.
Spirits of Camphor	8 fl. oz.

Mix in a dry bottle, and the oil is ready for use. This preparation may be smeared on the skin as often as is necessary to repel mosquito and other insects.

-IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

PAPER PARACHUTE

A new, improved paper parachute is claimed to have many uses and to stand up under storage conditions. According to a recent patent, paper parachute is treated with 1 to 4½ parts of glycerine in 100 parts of commercial alcohol. The paper has been thoroughly saturated, the solution is removed and the alcohol is evaporated from the paper. Paper treated this way reportedly may be folded and tightly packed for storage without damage to it or cracking at the folds.

UTILIZATION OF OIL MILL REFINERY WASTES

The recovery of lecithins which are now being increasingly used in food technology is emphasized. Lecithins can be recovered from mucilaginous matter mainly by centrifugation after flocculation and removal of aqueous matter—and may be subsequently further treated with acetone for removal of glycerides, fatty acids and possible impurities. Carotenoids, coloring matters in the oils and fats are generally eliminated in the process and bleaching recovery is not possible except in palm oil. In red palm oil (which is the name given to the fraction obtained on neutralizing palm oil) represents about one-third of the original oil and contains unsaturated glycerides and a lot of the coloring matter. The recovery of stearine from this fraction involves the preparation of methyl esters and subsequent (a) distilling under high vacuum (1/10 mm. Hg) at a temperature of 130°–140°C. and recovering the carotenoids by chromatography or (b) saponifying at a temperature of 60°C. or below in a nitrogen atmosphere and treating the resulting dry soap mass with petroleum ether, acetone or a chlorinated solvent. The latter (b) is an improved method and limits the saponification to the coloured liquid part of the oil so that there is economy both of solvent and apparatus. The soap forms a useful byproduct—sodium oleate—with 25-30 per cent. palmitate. The carotene extracts should prove valuable in animal nutrition. They are odourless and tasteless and sufficiently stable as they retain all the natural antioxidants of palm oil.

Sterols which form the greater part of the saponifiables of oils are a valuable source of hormones, vitamin D and other pharmaceutical products. The sterol content varies widely from 0.3-0.4 per cent. in linseed or colza oils to 3.5 per cent. in cotton seed oil, and over 7 per cent. in some fish liver oils. The odorous substances in oils and fats removed in the superheated steam treatment have a fairly high perfume content, e.g. methylmethylketone. These substances may be of value in perfumery.

—CHEMICAL ABST.

NEW-RESIN-SAND MOULDING PROCESS

A new resin-sand process for making foundry moulds and cores, described as "Croning", "C", or "Shell" process, developed in Germany during the war is now being tried on a pilot-plant scale in U.S.A. (C.T.J., 1950, 127, 1012). The process promises large savings and improvements over conventional sand moulding of cast iron and other metals and may become one of the biggest single uses for resins.

A mixture of 100 parts of dry sand and 8 parts of a thermosetting phenolic resin binder is placed on the hot metal pattern previously treated with a silicone resin as in greasing a cake pan. The pattern is built up to a thickness of ½"—1", the excess resin-sand mixture is shaken off and used again. The pattern covered with a thin layer of the resin-sand mixture, about 3/16" thick, is heated in an oven for 1-5 min. until the resin is set, forming a thin shell over the pattern; the shell is then removed from the pattern. Cores to fill hollow spaces in the final products are made by blowing the resin-sand mixture with compressed air into a split-heated metal core box. The mould is embedded in a box of steel shot where it can receive the molten metal. The mould/surfaces are smooth and require little surface cleaning.

Sections as thin as 0.01" can be poured and tolerances of 0.002"—0.008" for small castings can be achieved with the process. Castings up to 100 lbs. have been produced. The method may prove very useful for mass production of identical and relatively small castings for automobiles, tractors and farm machinery. The volume of sand necessary for making moulds can be reduced by 90 per cent.; machining and cleaning costs are cut by 80 per cent.; improved working conditions result from the relative freedom from excessive dust and heat; more efficient handling of materials and better use of foundry floor space are claimed. Hardened moulds can be made ahead of time and stored until needed.

—JOURNAL OF SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH.

IDENTIFICATION OF CLAYS

A simple, rapid colour test for a qualitative estimation of clay composition in soils and rocks, and staining techniques that help to distinguish between clays that are harmful and those that are beneficial in agriculture and in construction work, have been developed at the U. S. Bureau of Reclamation, Denver.

The specimens for staining are extracted with a strong solution of hydrochloric acid and after heating and dry distillation the material is filtered and stained with safranin. The stained specimens are examined under a microscope and the composition of the soil can be quickly determined by matching it with a comparison chart. Rapid field tests can be made by adding benzidine directly to untreated soils and rocks. Colour changes are observed within 5 min.

—JOURNAL OF SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH.

-FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

ZINC OINTMENT

3126 P.G.S., Jullundur City—Wants to have a formula of zinc ointment.

Zinc oxide	1 oz.
Benzoated lard	6 "

Mix in a mortar by rubbing and put in pots.

CREAM OF TARTAR

To prepare cream of tartar take crude tartar or argol deposited on the sides of the casks and vats during the fermentation of grape juice. Now dissolve the argol in hot water and treat it with a little pipeclay and animal charcoal, to remove the colouring matter derived from the wine. Filter the solution and set aside to crystallise.

MILK TOFFEE

Sweetened condensed milk	3 lbs.
Full cream milk	1 quart.
Sugar	3½ lbs.
Glucose	4 "
Butter	½ lb.

Vanilla and salt to flavour—sufficient.

Cook to crack all the ingredients together in an earthenware vessel of enamel except the last two. Then add the butter and vanilla essence. Pour the hot mass over a buttered marble slab. Lastly cut in cubes of required size and wrap in wax or cellophane paper.

HAIR FIXATIVE

3136 S.W., Madras—Wishes to have a good recipe of hair fixative.

(a) Distilled water	700 parts.
Glycerin	30 "
Borax, powdered	25 "
(b) Tincture of benzoin	225 "
(c) Perfume	10 "

Make a solution (a), and add (b) with good stirring and a thin jet, add (c). Allow to stand for 3 to 5 days. Filter and bottle.

REFINING PARAFFIN WAX

To refine paraffin wax melt it over slow fire and digest it with 1/10 of its weight of animal charcoal in a liquid state. When the purification is complete, the paraffin is strained through linen and crystallised.

CEMENT FOR GLASS

3143 G.R.G., Kothapur—Wants to have a formula of preparing cement for glass.

Isinglass	1 oz.
Powdered glue	1 dr.
Distilled water	2 oz.
Salicylic acid	10 gr.

Put the isinglass and glue in a gallipot add the salicylic acid and the water, pressing down the isinglass with a pestle until it is all soaked.

Place gallipot in a saucepan of water, bring the boil, stirring until dissolved, then add Acetic acid (88 per cent.) 1 oz.
Mix well, and pour into bottles.

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA

3151 M.B.L.S., Kanpur—Desires to know process of manufacturing sulphate of ammonia.

In the manufacture of ammonium sulphate the ammoniacal liquor obtained in the manufacture of coal gas is heated whereby the ammonia gas is evolved. This gas is then absorbed by passing through a heated mixture of gypsum and coke in equal proportions.

By this means the gypsum is converted to calcium carbonate and ammonia into ammonium sulphate. The latter being soluble in water separated out from the insoluble calcium carbonate by treating with water. The solution next evaporated to dryness so as to obtain ammonium sulphate.

MIRROR MAKING

3156 O.P., Delhi—Desires to learn a method of making mirror.

In making mirror two solutions are required namely reducing solution and silvering solution:—

Reducing Solution—In 1 oz. of distilled water dissolve 12 gr. of Rochelle salts, and while boiling add 16 gr. of silver nitrate dissolved in 1 oz. of distilled water and continue boiling for 10 minutes more; then add 10 oz. of distilled water to make 12 oz.

Silvering Solution—Dissolve 1 oz. of silver nitrate in 10 oz. of distilled water, then add liquid ammonia until the brown precipitate nearly, but not quite, all dissolved, then add 1 oz. of alcohol and sufficient water to make 12 oz.

To silver: Take equal parts of the two solutions and mix thoroughly, and lay the glass face down, on top of the mixture while wet and it has been carefully cleaned with soda and washed with clean water. About 2 dr. of the solution will silver a plate 2 inches square. The glass in which the silvering is done should be only a little larger than the plate. The solution should stand and settle for 2 or 3 days before being used and will keep good for a long time.

MASSAGE CREAM

White wax	4 ounces.
Spermaceti	4 "
White petrolatum	12 "
Rose water	14 "
Borax	80 grains.

Melt the wax, spermaceti, and petrolatum together over a water bath; dissolve the borax in the rose water and add to the melted mass one time. Agitate violently. Presumably it

ax solution should be of the same temperature as the melted mass.

VINEGAR FROM COCONUT JUICE

Take a measured quantity of coconut juice in a suitable vessel. Add to it one thousandth part of its volume of honey. Place on the surface traces of acetic acid ferment; leave the whole exposed to the air in a normal temperature. The action now goes on regularly for 4 weeks or more, and sometimes later.

Make a separate powder to be mixed with the above:—

Alum	3 lbs.
Neutral tartrate of potassium	5 oz.
Chloride of ammonium	7 lbs.

About 20 grains of this powder have to be dissolved first with a little soft water and then mixed to each gallon of vinegar and filtered.

SOAP POWDER

3156 O.P., Delhi—Wishes to have a process of making soap powder.

Soap powder is simply soda ash and soap oiled, and ground to a powder. Sodium silicate is also used as an ingredient. In preparing the soap a little more water should be added than is used in finishing settled soap. Should the soap be finished too coarse the mixture of soap and soda-ash in the crutcher may be too thick for easy working.

Mixing and Framing: For this purpose a soap crutcher may be used, but it is desirable that for making the thick, heavy mass of soap and ash the mixer be more strongly built than the ordinary soap crutcher and preferably of the type with either horizontal or vertical blade agitator. The ingredients added to the mixer comprise thin soap, soda-ash and silicate of soda. These may be in various proportions according to the quality of powder desired. For single frame 600 to 700 pounds each of soap and ash may be used to which 100 to 125 pounds of silicate are added. Soap is run in first, the amount being determined by the level in the mixer, and then the ash in successive amounts until the entire weight is added. Addition of the entire amount of ash at once may block the crutcher and bend or break the blades of the mixer. The amount of silicate added will depend upon the consistency of the mixture of soap and ash. When the soap is finished too thin, the weight of ash may not be sufficient to counteract the thinness of the resulting mixture, in which event either more ash or less silicate may be added. When a homogeneous mixture has been obtained

the mass is framed. One day as a rule suffices for cooling, at the end of which time the mass is stripped and cut. Corners and ends of the frame are usually hard, to penetrate while the ordinary soap-slabber is unsatisfactory. Recourse is to be had to be cut by wire, it must be disintegrated by more laborious means. After slabbing is the most cleanly and convenient. According to the floor method, the mixed soap and soda-ash are run directly from the crutcher, used exclusively for this purpose, on to the floor of the apartment, where it is allowed to solidify. After this it is broken into coarse lumps to facilitate cooling and drying. The mass is then further disintegrated, and ground as required. The slabs after disintegration, either by hand or disintegrator, are ready for grinding.

GLUCOSE

3176 P.K.K., Navsari—Desires to know the process of manufacturing glucose.

Liquid Glucose or Starch Syrup: To prepare it moist potato-starch, carefully purified from nitrogenous matter is employed. 200 parts by weight of water and as much sulphuric acid as serves to make a 0.3 per cent. solution are placed in a leadlined vessel, and 100 parts by weight of starch (weight dry) made into a milk with water are run into the boiling acid, so that the starch is almost immediately gelatinised. The mixture is then heated in a copper autoclave for one hour under 1 atmosphere pressure, so that about half of the starch is hydrolysed to dextrin and the rest to dextrose (or maltose). The process is finished when a portion gives no coloration with iodine—showing that all the starch has disappeared. The product is a non-crystallisable syrup having a density of 17°Be. The sulphuric acid is neutralised with calcium carbonate, the solution filtered from the calcium sulphate, through a filter-press, evaporated to 32°Be in a vacuum pan, again filtered from precipitated calcium sulphate, through a filter press, and finally decolorised by filtering through animal charcoal, which simultaneously absorbs some of the finer particles of calcium sulphate. The syrup is now again concentrated in vacuum pans to 40°—45°Be and should be clear and colourless.

Solid Glucose: Solid glucose is manufactured in the same way as the syrup, but the hydrolysis in the autoclave is carried on for a longer time so that the resulting mixture contains almost twice as much dextrose as dextrin. The product, when filtered, decolorised and evaporated, solidifies as a white mass of

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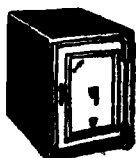
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microscopic crystals, in which fine needles of dextrose hydrate may be seen embedded in syrup. The crystalline dextrose hydrate however, be separated by ordinary means from the syrup.

ETCHING ON STEEL

3192 S.B., Moradabad—Wants to have a process of etching steel.

Dissolve in 150 parts of vinegar sulphate of copper, 80 parts; alum 8 parts; kitchen salt, 11 parts. Add a few drops of nitric acid. According to whether this liquid is allowed to act a longer or shorter time, the steel may be engraved upon deeply or the surface may be given a very ornamental, frosted appearance.

BRASSING IRON OR STEEL ARTICLES

3203 K.L.D., Bombay—Wishes to have a simple process of brassing iron articles.

Acetate of copper, 100 parts, by weight; cyanide of potassium, 250 parts; bisulphite of soda, 200 parts; liquid ammonia 100 parts; protochloride of zinc, 80 parts; distilled water, 10,000 parts. Dissolve the cyanide of potassium and the bisulphite of soda. On the other hand, dissolve the ammonia in three-fourths of the water and the protochloride of zinc in the remaining water; next, mix the two solutions. This bath is excellent for brassing zinc and is used cold.

BRONZE POWDER

These are made in various ways:—

1. The alloy is laminated into very fine leaves with careful annealing, and these are levigated into impalpable powders along with a film of fine oil to prevent oxidation, and to favour the levigation.

2. The scraps, cuttings and fragments of Dutch leaf are the materials for the German bronze powders. First brushed through a sieve and ground with gum water on marble slabs for six hours, the gum washed out, the powders sorted, dried, and a coating of grease given to make them appear more brilliant, and to protect them from oxidation.

3. Brandt's Patent Process:—In making bronze powders they first take precipitated copper. It is allowed with zinc, cast into ingots rolled into ribands, cut, annealed, and rolled the metal in thin and leaf-like. Then it is taken to a steam-mill and ground. The bronze powder is washed out and dried, then introduced into an air-tight room, with an arrangement of boxes; the air in the chamber is set in violent motion by bellows, and the powder diffused

throughout; the bronze powders are deposited; the finest in the upper boxes and the coarser powders below.

ARTIFICIAL STEEL SLATES

3204 R.B., Lahore—Desires to know process of making artificial school slates.

The artificial slate coating on iron or steel consists of a mixture of finely ground silic lampblack, and a water-glass solution of equal parts of carbonate of potash and soda silica. The process is as follows:—

First prepare the silicate solution by fine crushing equal parts of carbonate of potash and soda silicate and pouring over this 6 to 8 tin the quantity of soft water, which is kept boiling about 1½ hours whereby the silicate is completely dissolved. Add 7 parts finely crushed silic lampblack, which is ground with and grind enough of this mass with the previously prepared silicate solution. With this compound the rough form of steel plates is painted as uniformly as possible. Keep as the painted plates for a week. Then put in a saturated solution of calcium chloride and wash with clear water.

RADIATOR COMPOUND

3231 K.S.N., Bangalore—Wishes to have formulas of radiator compound.

A 20 per cent solution of sodium silicate mixed with zinc dust and whiting (¾ zinc dust whiting). This will take about 6 hours to set.

Moreover, to stop small leaks quickly mix the white of 2 eggs in the radiator while the water is cold. Another recipe of quick seal for radiator is as follows:—

Cellulose lacquer, colourless	10 parts
Aluminium filings	3 "

COMPOUND SHELLAC

60 per cent zinc-hardened Vinsol and 40 per cent dry orange shellac by weight. The Vinsol is melted to 450°F. and 3 per cent of zinc oxide on the weight of the Vinsol is sifted in and the temperature gradually raised to 575°F., then cooled to 400°F., at which point the shellac is added and when thoroughly blended the mixture poured into cooling pans. A 4-pound cut of the blend behaves very much as pure shellac in the majority of tests.

BLACK INSULATING TAPE

Resin	20 parts.
Resin oil	20 "
Coal tar	20 "

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Wood tar	10 parts.
Kerosene oil	10 "
Linseed oil	10 "

Mix the ingredients over a moderate fire treat the tape with the composition.

REACTION OF PEPPERMINT OIL

3233 K.K.S., Guntur—Wishes to have a process of extraction of peppermint oil.

Peppermint oil is obtained by distillation of the fresh and sometimes partially dried, young tops of different species of the Genus *Mentha*. The distilling apparatus consists of a vat containing the herb, placed on an open pan containing the water. Fire is applied, the steam passes through the herb and is condensed on an inverted cone. The distillate is carried away to the receiver by a tube through the side of the vat.

STEARIC ACID

3256 K.D.S., Jaipur—Desires to learn a process of manufacturing stearic acid and also stearic trichloride.

Stearic acid can be prepared by Milly's clays Process. In this process the saponification of fat is carried out by lime in presence of water in strong closed metallic vessels, at a temperature of 172°C. One form of such vessel for saponification by lime under pressure has been much used is an egg-shaped vessel. The lime soap after its separation is decomposed by sulphuric acid, four parts of acid to three parts of lime used being taken. The complete subsidence of the calcium salt; the free fatty acids are thoroughly washed with water and steam. The crude fatty acids are then melted and run into dishes or troughs of tin. These are placed in at room temperature for 2 to 3 days to cool or until they have granulated. The cakes are then in canvas bags and pressed to remove the acid.

After this the thin cakes of stearic acid is needed. This is known as single pressed stearic acid.

ANTIMONY TRICHLORIDE

This salt may be prepared in the dry way using chlorine over excess of antimony, or heating together antimonious sulphate and mercuric chloride, when sodium sulphate remains antimonious chloride distills over. The salt can also be obtained by dissolving either antimonious or antimonious sulphide in strong hydrochloric acid, and distilling the rest.

POLISH

259 A., Bombay—Wants a good recipe of polish.

Shellac wax	3 lbs.
Bees wax	1 lb.
Hard paraffin	2 lbs.
Soft soap	1 lb.
Turpentine oil	2½ gallons.
Oil soluble dye	1 oz.

Melt the wax over slow fire in capacious iron pan. Next add the soap and heat to dissolve. Then slowly stir in the turpentine oil and lastly dye dissolved in a little turpentine oil; when thoroughly mixed extinguish the fire but go on stirring until the mixture begins to thicken. At this stage pour in tins.

NAPHTHALENE BALLS

In order to produce naphthalene balls the purified naphthalene is carefully melted at a low heat in an ordinary melting pot and ladled into the moulds with an iron ladle. Great care must be taken in melting the substance because at a high temperature it will ignite and burn causing a great loss to manufacturers. In casting, iron and wooden moulds are generally used. These are made in two halves connected together with pins; in each half a number of hemispherical depression are sunk in a line with a tube connecting them all together. At one end of the mould is a hole drilled for pouring in the melted mass. On cooling the liquid is solidified into balls, which may be separated by breaking off the attached pipe.

LUBRICATING GREASE

3285 D.N., Delhi—Wants to have good formula of lubricating grease and also erasing rubber.

Petroleum jelly	120 parts.
Ceresine wax	6 "
Slaked lime	½ part.
Water	4½ parts.

Heat the wax and the petroleum jelly until liquid; then mix together the water and lime. Decant the former into packing receptacles, and add lime water, stirring until it sets. For cheaper qualities use cream cylinder oil instead of petroleum jelly.

CHALK CRAYONS

3291 S.H.R., Goregaon—Wishes to have recipes of chalk crayons.

Precipitated chalk	40 parts.
Plaster of Paris	45 "
Lithopone	10 "
Glue solution	5.10 "

Knead all together to make a soft dough and pour into gun metal moulds. When set take out and allow to dry in air. Then put all together in a tray and moderately bake over mild fire.

TRADE MARKS & PATENTS

For any difficulty in registration of trade marks & patents in India or abroad Consult :

DEWAN RAJ KUMAR,

Trade Marks & Patents Attorney,

78, Pedar Chambers, Fort, Bombay.

Phone: 32444. Note: Head office of Trade Marks Registry for India is in Bombay.

—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEM

[Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to write us his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful career. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by post.]

OPENINGS FOR EDUCATED INDIAN LADIES

235 R.L.D., Chinsurah writes—A girl of mine has passed the I.A. I am unable to provide for her further studies. The same reason operates strongly against her marriage as obviously I cannot give her away in marriage to one who is below her from an educational view point, and I have not the money necessary for her marriage with a bridegroom of high educational attainments. Though I am a Hindu, I do not observe the purdah. Can you tell me what arrangements I am to make for her future career?

Answer:—This is a very complex question, the solution whereof involves issues of social and economic nature. At any rate, we are glad that you have told us that, "although a Hindu, you do not observe the purdah." This has made matters somewhat easy for us. We fully appreciate and respect your unwillingness to marry your daughter to one who is below her from an educational viewpoint. It would no doubt have been eminently desirable if you could have managed to get her graduated. But if, as you have said, the financial difficulties, of which you are the best judge, be really insuperable, then we are afraid there is no help in the matter. Why not ask your daughter to join one of the Insurance Companies as a canvasser? The prospects are ample, and a smart and educated lady, after some preliminary training as is usually imparted to their canvassers by at least some of the Insurance Companies, is sure to make a good income by her activities. Competition is almost unknown, as unlike males the number of ladies who have hitherto joined this line, is exceedingly limited. The work, besides, is not likely to be very hard in nature. Anyway, we feel sure that the Insurance Companies will only be very glad to respond to your queries if you enquire of them on your daughter's behalf as to whether or not there

is any prospect for her if she chooses to start as a canvasser of Insurance Policies.

POLICY FOR NEWCOMERS IN TRADE

3106 M.V.N., Madras—I have started a general store here very recently. Some of my customers request me to sell goods on credit. But as I have a very small capital, I cannot supply goods on credit. I shall be highly obliged if you please advise me on this.

Considered from all points of view for one newly initiated in trade the best manner to be followed would be to transact on a cash basis. As he gets back money as soon as the goods are sold and the capital invested is comparatively small, he can afford to make his profit and this can offer cheaper rates to his constituents. Moreover, as he receives so much, he is easily able to pay cash and thus secure a good discount from the house whence he makes his purchases and this compensates for the easy terms he quotes to his customers. The point is often not clearly understood by new traders. Many are found to buy on credit even if they have cash in hand or suitable reserves in banks. It often pays to borrow from a bank to avail oneself of the discount he can enjoy by making ready payments. Suppose that the monthly purchase is Rs. 1000 and the discount available is $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, then if he pays ready cash he will get Rs. 25 as discount. Considering that he borrows at 12 p. c. interest a rate far too higher than at which it is available, he has to pay Rs. 10 monthly and thus he makes a clear profit or Rs. 15 per month with no exertion but only with a little financial calculation. Another important advantage that he scores over his competitor working on a credit system is that he has not to pay for additional staff required for keeping accounts of the customers and taking recourse to litigation against the customers when they fail to pay their dues.

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—BRIEF QUERIES AND REPLIES

Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from our parts will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of 8 stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two International Reply Coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters.

1 S.N.M., Kanpur—We have no book on colour manufacture. An article on lead colour manufacture appeared in February 1951 issue of Industry.

2 B.C., Comilla—For chemicals and dyes write of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., Sardar Ghat Road, Chittagong.

3 S.H.A., Jharwasa—Following is a list of general dealers: All-India Minerals Association, Netaji Subhas Road; Bagri Mining Syndicate, Cross Road; Bengal Supply Co., 23, Strand Road; Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Brown Lane; East India Trading Co., 2, Church Street; and Free India Agencies, 1-2, Jackson Street, all of Calcutta.

4 N.C.I., Baroda—A formula of tambul appeared in January 1951 issue and a formula of Mukhbilas appeared in February 1951 issue of Industry. You may also consult Home Industries published from this office, price 3/7/-.

5 T.K.S.R., Pondicherry—You may consult October 1950 issue of Industry which may be sent to you on receipt of Rs. 7/12/- postage stamp. It is not possible to remove upper coating of

6 S.P.S., Chikati—The bluing of gun barrels effected by heating evenly in a muffle furnace. When the desired blue colour is raised, the barrel is first made clean and bright with emery paper, having no marks of grease or dirt upon the metal when the bluing takes place, and then allowed to cool in the air. It requires considerable patience to obtain an ever clear blue.

7 J.S.K., Delhi—You perhaps mean table salt which may be prepared as follows: To make 1 lb. of salt dissolve lump rock salt in four times weight of water, filter and then drop into the solution first chloride of barium and afterwards carbonate of soda as long as any precipitate falls. Then filter and evaporate the fluid very slowly until crystals begin to appear. When this condition has been reached add the solution for a day. The crystals are taken out, dried and kept in bottles.

8 R.C.C., Patna—Following is a recipe of table cod liver oil: Cod liver oil is extracted with 90 per cent alcohol, filtered and the alcohol

distilled off. Citric or tartaric acid 10 gr.; lemon oil 15 min.; syrup 4 oz.; cod liver oil 4 oz.

9 P.V.R., Tanuku—For vermicelli and sago making machines enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

10 R.M.D., Bombay—For hosiery write to Ahmedabad Hosiery Factory, Ahmedabad; Fine Knitting Co. Ltd., Railwaypura, Ahmedabad; Karnatak Hosiery Works, Shahapur, Belgaum; Mehta Hosiery Works, Kachria Pole, Richey Road, Ahmedabad and Southern Knitting Works Ltd., Poona. Following is a list of hinge manufacturers: Abdul Kader Shamsuddin & Co., 41, Khoka Bazar, Bombay; Bombay Hinge Supplying Co., 66, Masjid Bunder Road, Matunga, Bombay; New India Hinge Supplying Co., 215-217, Samuel Street, Bombay and Purushottam Ramji Ltd., 12, Raja Woodmunt Street, Calcutta. Following is a list of nut and bolt manufacturers: Bolt Nut House, 71A, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta; Baroda Bolt & Engineering Co., Gaya Gate, Baroda; Ambica Bolt Nut Works, 100, Foras Road, Near Municipal Workshop, Bombay and Bharat Nut Bolts Industries Works, Udyog Nagar, Opp. King's Circle Station, Bombay 22.

11 M.S., Tadeppalligudem—We have no book on coal industry. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3 & 4, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

12 M.R., Ramur—Process of manufacturing camphor tablets appeared in January 1951 issue of Industry.

13 M.R.W., Bombay—Process of manufacturing rubber balloons of required description will appear in due course.

14 G.P., Berhampur—Technique of printing business will be found in Printers Guide published by Oriental Printing Works, 18, Brindaban Basak Street, Calcutta.

15 G.M., Secunderabad—Following is a list of screw manufacturers: National Screw & Wire Products Factory, Belur, Howrah; British Screw & Bolt Works, 33, Narsingh Dutt Road, Howrah; Alliance Engineering Works, Santragachi,

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16 A.N.P.C., Coimbatore—For selling sarees you should advertise in local papers.

17 B.N.O., Rajkot—Refer your query to the International Institute, Aligarh.

18 K.V.S., Bangalore—For cleaning brass wire to a brilliant colour make a mixture of 1 part of common nitric acid and 1 part of sulphuric acid in a stone jar, having also ready a part of fresh water and a box of sawdust. The articles to be treated are dipped into the acid then removed into the water, and finally rubbed with sawdust. This immediately changes them to a brilliant colour.

19 M.Y.K., Muzaffarnagar—You may take up agency business of foreign goods. But without any experience you will not be able to prosper in the line. It will be advisable for you to be an apprentice in a business house doing foreign agency business.

35 M.Z.Q., Etawah—You should use magnesium oxide and ethyl ether.

36 P.C.L., Travancore—For rubber you may enquire of the following firms: Periyar Rubber Co. Ltd., Thattakaad, Alwayar, Travancore; Portland Rubber Estates Ltd., Makut, Coorg; P. T. Thomas, Mundakayam, Travancore and P. V. Kuravilla & Sons, Kothamangalam, Travancore.

37 G.T.C., Jaipur—No machine is available for splitting bamboo into thin sticks. You have to cut into thin sticks with sharp knife.

38 G.T.C., Nigeria—It is not possible to supply all the addresses you require. All the addresses will be found in Industry Year Book and Directory price Rs. 16/4/-.

39 R.H.L., Tanjore—We have no book dealing with forest product and indigenous herbs and drugs. You better enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

40 C.J., Calcutta—Following is a list of pencil manufacturers: Bhupati Pencil Factory, Post Box No. 52, Quilon, Travancore; F. N. Gopput & Co., 12, Bellaghata Road, Calcutta; G. C. Law & Co., 2, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta; Hindusthan Pencil Ltd., 428, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay; Quilon Pencil Factory, Quilon; Star of India Pencil Factory, Washermanpet, Madras and Victory Pencil Co., Beach Road, Quilon. Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industry Prize Articles Vol. 1 published from this office, price Re. 1-14-0 including postage. There is no arrangement for giving practical training on pencil manufacture. You may start a pencil factory with Rs. 25,000 as initial capital.

41 B.S., Shillong—Refer your query regarding lac to the Director, Lac Research Institute, Nankum, Ranchi.

42 S.G.Q., Calcutta—We have dealing with glass industry. You may consult some book on glass manufacturing.

51 T.B.K., Fyzabad—Following herb dealers: Bansidhar Dutt, 12, G. Pally Street; Indian Herb Store, 1, G. Pally Street; P. C. Dawn & Co., 1, Mechnat Street; Madhusudan Chatterjee, 19, Mullik Street; P. K. Brothers, 46-1, Banstola Street, Calcutta.

52 K.A.K., Bangalore—Following of snuff dealers: A. Jainabadeen Saheb, Mint Street, Madras; K. S. Sahib Snuff, 33-37, Mutta Naicken Street, G. T., Madras; Mugam & Co., 40, Old Jail Street, Madras; Shanmugam Snuff Co., P. O. Box 140, Madras. Following is a list of tobacco merchants: Lakshmi Tobacco Export Co., Guntur; Tobacco Export Co., Kothampet, Guntur; Majeti & Aka, Guntur.

53 N.T., Ambala Cantt.—Following of lubricating oil dealers: Anglo-Iranian (India) Ltd., Hongkong House; Associated Oil Co., 6, Totter Lane; Burmah Shell Oil Storage Distributing Co. of India Ltd., Hongkong House, Dalhousie Square; C. C. Wakefield & Co., 7, Royal Exchange Place; Caltex Co. (India) Ltd., United Insurance Bldgs., 6, Ranjan Avenue and Standard Vacuum Oil Co., 6, Church Lane; all of Calcutta. You may consult Industry Year Book & Directory published from this office, price Rs. 16/- including postage.

54 G.L.A., Rewa—Refer your query to Consul General for Norway, Imperial Chancery, Wilson Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

55 R.P.G., Rewa—Following is a list of bristle merchants: Khaitan Sons & Co., Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta; Cawasji Sons, Opp. Anwarganj, Kanpur and Hindustan Co., Mulberry House, Agra. For services match expert advertise in newspapers.

56 S.R.R., Shencottah—We have no book on toy manufacture. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta for the book on toy industry.

57 J.G.S.C., Delhi—Process of making peppermint, lemon extract and benzoin appear in due course.

58 D.D.S., Bombay—Process of manufacturing robbin compound and pasting gum appear in due course.

59 B.Q.S., Patiala—We do not sell of publications. For British Pharmaceutical Co. enquire of Das Gupta & Co., 54-3, College Street, Calcutta.

60 Z.H.S., Etawah—We have no elaborate book on paint and varnish manufacture.

61 M.S., Ottapalam—For enamelled sheet enquire of the following firms: Bengal Enamel Works Ltd., 15, Old China Bazar Street, Calcutta; Sur Enamel & Stamping Works Ltd., 9, Madras Road, Entally, Calcutta and Madras Enamel Works Ltd., 65, Sydenhams Road, Madras.

62 N.J.V.C., Murtazapur—Exhausted dry cell has no use. You may separate the component parts and sell them in the market by advertising. Essential oils may be had

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Products & Chemicals Ltd., Prospect Annexe, Bombay; B. C. Patel & Co., "Business Street", Bombay; Essence Supply Co., 16, Colootola Street, Calcutta and Ghose & Sons, 3, Ezra Street, Calcutta. You may be had of Ciba (India) Ltd., Jehangir Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay; Hansraj & Co., 2A, Armenian Street, Calcutta and Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., Grand Road, Calcutta.

65 G.E.R.S. Khanna Detailed process of manufacturing dry batteries will be found in manufacture of Batteries published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

64 V.V.S. Bijapur Process of manufacturing white colour Emp-Resina B. P. will appear in early issue of Industry.

66 J.P. Alial For waste paper write to Bhattacharjee, 312, Harrison Road and S. K. Chak, 314B, Harrison Road; both of Calcutta. For Sam ink and lead pencil enquire of Ghosey Halder & Co., 11, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

67 R.N.V. Rohtak—For electric hunter write to General Electric Co. (India) Ltd., Post House, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta and Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Bhaskar Road, Calcutta.

68 A.P.A. Rozwada—Process of manufacturing cinema carbon will appear in due course.

69 G.L.B. Rantoul—Bread making machines may be had of Small Machineries Manufacturing Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, both of Calcutta.

71 K.R. Ferozeab—You may consult some Industries published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage. For elaborate book on bread and biscuit manufacture enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

73 A.N.S. Chaura—Before manufacturing tobacco you may treat tobacco leaves with lime-water.

74 R.K.P. Gondia—Your query is in the nature of an advertisement so this cannot be published in these columns.

75 R.B.V. Agra—Hindi equivalent of the ingredients is not available.

76 O.N.A., Colombo—An article on textile printing appeared in October 1950 issue of Industry.

77 J.V.R.S., Ambalipeta—Wood screw manufacturing machines may be had of Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place, Calcutta and T. E. Thomson & Co., 9, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

91 G.T.B.C.O.M., Anritsar—You may treat the soap stock with caustic soda for improving its colour. You may use oil expeller for extracting oil mud. You may consult Vegetable Oil Industries published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage. It is not possible to start glass industry with small capital.

92 R.M.P., Kampala—You should dissolve 12 grain sodium potassium tartrate in 12 oz. of distilled water.

93 S.S.R., Simla—Following is a list of confectioners: Sini Confectionery Works, Sini; Patna Confectionery Works, Gudri Bazar, Patna; National Confectionery Manufacturing Co., 301 Cr. of Grant Road, Bombay; Ghose & Mitra Confectionery, 110, Raja Dinendra Street, Calcutta; Bengal Confectionery Works, 98-3, Canning Street, Calcutta and U. P. Confectionery, 71/1, Canning Street, Calcutta. Following is a list of fire works manufacturers: Baba Fire Works, Surat; Bonbanniere, P. O. Box No. 10827, Calcutta; Dipali Fire Works, Konnagar, Hooghly; Kaka Fire Works Factory, Kuria Road, Andheri, Bombay and Orient Fire Works Co., 175B, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta. Following is a list of agarbati manufacturers: Mysore State Trading Agarbatti Co., 34-1, Ratu Sarkar Lane, Calcutta; M. K. Attar & Sons, Post Pachhapur, Belgaum; Mysore Anand Dhoo Factory, Kalamma Temple Road, Mysore; & Mysort Trading Agency, Basavangudi, Bangalore 4. Following is a list of fruit merchants: H. Fakir Mohamed Wazir Mohammad, 12, Ram Lochan Mullick Street; Golam Rabbani Mohamed Ayooob, 162, Harrison Road and Kishandas Kalidas, 12, Ramlochan Mullick Street, all of Calcutta. Following is a list of glass manufacturers: Balsukh Glass Works, 7, Swallow Lane, Calcutta Glass & Silicate Works, 9, Kundu Lane and Javanti Glass Works Ltd., 8, Ezra Street, all of Calcutta. Exhaustive list will be found in Industry Year Book & Directory published from this office, price Rs. 16/4/- including postage.

94 D.V.V., Jamnagar—You should consult a handwriting expert. You may advertise in newspaper for securing services of a handwriting expert.

95 S.M.W., Ludhiana—For transfer labels enquire of Stenograph Co., Baranagore, Calcutta.

96 N.P.D.P., Kala handi—For wire nail and pin making machines enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

97 S.P.A., Alinagar—You may start oil extracting business with Rs. 20,000-. You have to invest Rs. 1 lakh for starting a glass factory. Plastic industry can be started with small capital.

98 N.G.P.P., Tuticorin—We have no book on brick and tile manufacture. You may how-

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Phone:
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ever enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta for the book. For machine write to Martin Burn Ltd., 12, Mission Row, Calcutta.

99 J.K.L., Hubli—We have no book on taxidermy, hypnotism and novels. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3, Old Court House Street; both of Calcutta.

100 K.S., Doliwala—Mantles after been knitted impregnated in impregnating solution, dried and then burnt in a burner.

101 G.T.C., Kanpur—Process of manufacturing naphthaline balls will appear in due course.

102 H.S.M.S., Alur—All the chemicals you require may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10 Bonfield Lane, Calcutta.

103 R.K.S., Ludhiana—We have no book on power loom. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East and Das Gupta & Co., 54-3, College Street; both of Calcutta.

104 M.L.B., Agra—We have no book on dry cleaning and laundry business. For laundry machine enquire of Jessop & Co., 93, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

105 S.J.M., Billimora—We have no book on jewellery and ornament manufacture. For the book you may enquire of Hamilton & Co. Ltd., 8, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

106 K.A.K., Bangalore—Process of manufacturing artificial beeswax will appear in due course.

107 S.S., Gaya—For soyabean enquire of Khadi Pratishthan, 15, College Square, Calcutta.

119 S.A., Kolar—For wool shearing machine write to W. H. Brady & Co., Ltd., Mercantile Bldg., Lall Bazar, Calcutta and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

120 K.M.D.C., Cuddapah—You have to take Drug Licence for manufacturing medicine and selling in the market. For particulars write to the Central Drugs Laboratory, Govt. of India, 110, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

121 R.S.M., Ranchi—Following is a list of tanneries: Bengal Tannery Co., 31-14, Lower Chitpur Road, Calcutta; Modern European Tannery Ltd., 102, Tonsia Rd. South, Calcutta; T. S. Tannery, 82, South Tangra Road, Calcutta; Patna Tannery, Payental Garden Lane, Calcutta; Chrome Leather Co., Ltd., Chromepet, Madras; Tinnevely Tanneries Ltd., Sta-

tion Road, Sermadevi, S. I. Ry.; Cawr Tannery Ltd., Bhananapurwa, Kanpur; dusthan Tanneries Ltd., Jajmau Road, Ka and North West Tannery Co., Civil L Kanpur.

122 S.M., Bombay—We are not aware any firm that awards degrees of foreign universities, such as London, New York and V ington.

123 L.S.R., Balasore—In order to rectify the defect of ink powder increase the po of dextrine to 3 oz. in place of 2 oz.

124 A.E.W., Nasik—Process of manufacturing red lead will appear in due course

125 S.J.K., Khurja City—Hand d cigarette making machine is not available. particulars of power-driven machine writ Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Road, Calcutta.

126 J.P.A., Srinagar—For flour mill chinerles and oil engines enquire of Ba Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas R T. E. Thomson & Co. Ltd., 9, Esplanade and Oriental Machinery Supplying Ag Ltd., P-12, Mission Row Extension; al Calcutta.

127 T.N.R., Patna—For calendar you write to the Imperial Tobacco Co. of I Ltd., Virginia House, 37, Chowringhee, Cal

128 E.R.S., Berhampur—Hydrogen ga not available in cylinders. You have to duce gas yourself by adding zinc to sulpl acid. Balloons may be had of Swastik R Industries, Wardha, M. P.; Oriental R Factory, 52, Shri Krishna Niwas, Kalbr Road, Bombay and Kundanmal Ramlal, 5 Bldg., 78-80, New Hanuman Lane, Bombay.

129 I.A., Bhuj—For supplying cutlery may negotiate with the following firms: A Nasiruddin, 60, Canning Street, Calcut Mazumdar & Co., 113, Manohardas Ch Barabazar, Calcutta. S. H. Md. Ismail & S 58-8, Canning Street, Calcutta; Esoopally himbhoy, 205, Cutlery Bazar, Bombay and H. Abdul Karim, 215, Cutlery Bazar, Bomb 130 D.A.P., Badulla—For tyre retread machine enquire of Kilburn & Co. Ltd., 4, I lie Place, Calcutta and Mother & Platt 1 Bruce Street, Fort. Bombay. For securing expert in tyre retreading advertise in newspapers.

132 B.M., Berhampur—All the chemi you require may be had of Calcutta Chem Co., Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Allied Age 16, Bonfield Lane; both of Calcutta.

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133 R.V., Dinapore Cantt.—Process of manufacturing pan mosala, agarbatty and da will appear in due course.

134 M.A., Patna—Envelope making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. Lathe machines may be had of Heroes Engineering Works, Ltd., 20, Paulpet, Calcutta.

135 A.G.A.B., Banaras City—Stationery and plastic goods may be had of Bengal Stationers Syndicate, 1, Mission Row; City Stationery Mart, 14-2, Old China Bazar Street; Shri Bakshi Bros & Co., 3, David Joseph Road; Jayantilal & Co., 55-131, Canning St.; Nar Nath, 40A, Armenian Street and M. S. Red & Co. Ltd., 58-6, Canning Street; all of Calcutta.

137 S.B., Madras—For suitcase fittings enquire of Patel Brothers, 34, Strand Road, and J. S. Hardware Emporium, 107, Chandney Walk; both of Calcutta.

138 S.L.M., Meerut—We have no book on wool manufacture. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and Standard Literary Co. Ltd., 13-1, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

144 S.M.A., Bahrain—You may consult Industry Year Book & Directory published from the office, Price £1 6sh. including postage.

151 P.G.P., Bombay—Dip the garment in cleaning solution, rub thoroughly then dry in sun. Radio receivers are not manufactured in India at present. Radio receivers are ordered by the following firms: Phillips Electrical Co. (India) Ltd., 2, Heysham Road; C. Saha Ltd., 20D, Lindsay Street; R. C. & Sons, 161/1, Harrison Road; N. B. Sen Bros., 11, Esplanade East and C. C. Saha, 170, Dharamtala Street; all of Calcutta.

153 A.K.B., Allahabad—We have no separate book on calico printing. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

157 M.M.M., Lakhya—Replics of queries generally published free of charge in all order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of Rs. -/8/- stamps for each question.

158 S.N.R., Motihari—You may consult the table Oil Industry published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage. We have no book dealing with the process of manufacturing sugar from gur. You may refer to the All India Village Industries

Association, Maganwadi, Wardha, M.P. for a book on sugar making from gur.

161 R.K.M., Coimbatore—For rubber latex enquire of Mundakayam Valley Rubber Co., Ltd., Mundakayam, Travancore; P. T. Thomas, Mundakayam, Travancore and Murphy Estates Ltd., Mundakayam, Travancore. For chemicals enquire of Najmuddin Bros., Akbar Chambers, Mohamedali Road, Bombay 4.

162 C.R.R.T., Tellicherry—You may consult Manufacture of Confectionery published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage. Confectionery machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. We have no book on steel trunk manufacture. For machines enquire of Alfred Herbert (India), Ltd., 13-3, Strand Road, Calcutta.

163 I.T., Meerut City—You have to secure Export Licence for exporting herbs and drugs from India. You may negotiate with the following firms for exporting herbs: William M. Allison & Co., 162, Water Street, New York; Asiatic Trading Co., 235, West 29th Street, New York; Iran American Trading Co., 505, Fifth Avenue, New York.

164 V.A.C., Kumbakonam—Following is a list of stick lac dealers: Jagadish Brothers, Dankinanj, Mirzapore; Carlo Ram Chetti Lall, Sabri Mirzapore and Gopaladas Kanhiya Lall, Muzaffarganj, Mirzapore.

165 L.B.T.C., Bombay—Surma is trisulphide of antimony purified by fusion and reduced to a black powder. The powder is used as an application to the eye lids and eyebrows. Detailed process of manufacturing surma will appear in usual course.

166 B.C.D., Gauhati—Process of mirror making appeared in April, 1950 issue of Industry.

168 U.S., Delhi—Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industry Prize Articles Vol. I published from the office, price Re. 1-15 including postage.

175 B.T.A., Gandhidham—Soda water making machines may be had of Essence & Bottle Supply Agency, 14, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta.

177 C.P., Gudivada—Process of tanning and colouring leather will appear in due course.

178 K.T.C., Bombay—Following is a list of tin factories: Bengal Tin Box Mfg. Co. Ltd., 1, Jadunath Mitter Lane; Calcutta Tin Factory, 14/2, Nirod Behari Mullick Road; Colour

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Printing & Hollowware Works Ltd., 243, Upper Circular Road; Dhur Tin Factory, 101, Aukshoy K. Mukherjee Road; all of Calcutta. For an exhaustive list consult **Industry Year Book & Directory** published from this office, price Rs. 16/4 including postage. Following is a list of Sugar Mills of S. India: **Coimbatore Lakshmi Sugar Mills Ltd., Podanur; Etikoppaka Sugar Factory, Etikoppaka, Vizagapatam; Hospet Sugar Mills Ltd., Hospet, Bellary and Sri Rama Mills Ltd., Bobbili, Vizagapatam.**

180 S.S., Colombo—For paper cups enquire of **Bengal Cardboard Industries & Printers Ltd., 156, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.**

184 G.D.S.C., Kanauj Process of manufacturing aromatic chemicals will appear in due course.

185 E.P.P., Aurangabad For florentine orris enquire of **F. N. Sirkar, 37, Cannon St. Calcutta and Globe Books, 59, Upper Street Calcutta.**

186 I.E., Agra—All the chemicals referred to by you are used in dyeing yarn and cloth and in printing cloth.

189 O.P., Delhi—Industrial diamonds, corundum and other hard stones are used for cutting glass.

192 A.M.F., Goa Process of making artificial cocoa butter will appear in due course.

193 D.R.M., Banaras For sewing thread enquire of **Acme Thread Co., 37, Cannon St. Calcutta.** For reel winding machine enquire of **W. H. Brady & Co., Ltd. Mercantile Bazar, Lall Bazar, Calcutta.**

194 G.U.C., Madras You may start ink tablet manufacture, sawdust manufacture and toothpowder manufacture on small scale.

195 P.P.R., Koram Steel tanks and suitcases may be had of **Arjo Bhardwaj, 90/2A, Harrison Road, Y.M.C.A. Bldg.; Park Factory, 8, Broda Dalal Street; Modern Trunk Factory, 34, Harrison Road and National Trunk Mfg. Co., 12, Old China Bazar Street; all of Calcutta.** For iron safe enquire of **G. P. S. Co., 70-1, Netaji Subhas Road and Roy & Co., 100, Harrison Road; both of Calcutta.**

197 G.L., Amritsar Following is a list of foreign trade commissioners in India: **V. K. Senor Trade Commissioner in India, Eastern House, Mansingh Road, New Delhi; Senor Australian Govt. Trade Commissioner in India, Menkla Bldg., 10, Outram Road, Bombay 1;**

American Trade Commissioner, 9-10, Esplanade, Mansion, Calcutta and French Trade Commissioner, 13, Park Mansions, Park Street, Calcutta. Wants to be put in touch with suppliers of white sheet for manufacturing hinges.

200 P.W.M., Banhatti—We have no such book. You may write to **Manager of Publications, Civil Lines, New Delhi** for Govt. of India publications.

202 R.K., Shillong You may consult **C. Keating in Igdis by Isa Tweed** to be had **Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade, East, Calcutta.**

203 G.F.R.S., Khanna—You may consult **Manufacture of Batteries** published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage.

204 U.H.N., Chhabasa—We are not aware of the address of the agent of the firm referred to by you. You better write to **American Trade Commissioner, 9-10, Esplanade, Mansion, Calcutta.**

205 B.N.S.V., New Delhi—Following is list of herb dealers **Bansidhar Dutt, 12, Khargachetty Street, Calcutta; Indian Herb Store, 31, Mullick Street, Calcutta; P. C. Dey & Co., 1, Meebha Bazar Street, Calcutta; Hirdaya Stores, Kasauli Hills, E. Punjab and Khaitan Sons & Co., 2, Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta.**

207 S.A.A., Sukkur You may consult **Hence Industries and Prospective Industries** both the books published from this office at price Rs. 3/7/- each including postage.

211 R.B., Alkal—For fruit preserving apparatus enquire of **Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension and Marshall Sons & Co. Ltd., 99, Netaji Subhas Road, both of Calcutta.**

212 I.E.T.C., Bareilly Process of denoising and retarding rice oil will be found in **March, 1951, Issue of Industry.** It is not possible to manufacture rubber on small scale.

213 A.P.A. Bezwada Process of manufacturing cinema carbon will appear in an early issue.

214 D.B.G., Bombay Amyl acetate and acetone are used for making tubes from celluloid film. Celluloid bangles are in demand throughout India.

217 S.S.M.C., Madras Process of tin printing will appear in due course.

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—REVIEW OF BOOKS

MODERN AGE AND INDIA. Edited by A. BOSE, M.A., Ph.D. Published by Leftist Book Club, 186, Bowbazar Street Calcutta 12. (pages 26). price Rs. 6/-.

The book under review marks off the century for economic and political experimentation in various countries and India down from the nineteenth century to the present day. The book is a collection of articles by eminent writers on twenty subjects, e.g., Spirit of the Modern Age, First Revolutions, French Revolution, Industrial Revolution, Russian Revolution, Colonial Revolution, Political Ideologies, Capitalism, Socialism, India's Struggle For Freedom, India's Economic Problems, etc..

The book thus presents an intelligent, well-kept, account of the main currents of social and political ideologies now occupying the human mind all over the world. The book comes with a number of chapters dwelling on the evolving constitutionalism in India with a account of the political programme of different political parties working in India for India's social and economic uplift.

PLANNING FOR THE INDIA'S MANPOWER by Uma Charan Patnaik, M.A., B.L., L.A. (Orissa), Advocate, Orissa High Court.

The book under review is in fact a memorandum submitted by the author to the Government of India with relation to planning India's man power. The author believes that social and economic freedom for teeming millions of India can only be achieved by a mass mobilisation of India's vast manpower all out and all-round development drive. The book envisages a comprehensive scheme for the utilisation of India's human resources. The book strongly urges the coordination of the construction and defence departments and the utilisation of defence machinery for productive and constructive purposes. Here is an aspect which has not received adequate attention in this country. The Civil and Defence should in addition to the Centre and the States have to work in unison from top to bottom at every level for this purpose. The book essentially means that the task of arming, education, training in aviation, armaments, trades and agriculture have to be co-ordinated with the top-heavy Defence Department and that suitable provision has to be made for the demobilised persons to help in the country's development drive and to maintain themselves without a pension through trades, armaments and agriculture. The major part of the book is devoted with this aspect of planning though references have been made to development of agriculture, industries etc. for the betterment of the lot of the Indian people. The memorandum is thought-provoking and deserves wide use. The suggestions, if followed, will lead to most desirable results but it does not strike at the Defence Department, as it is now constituted, is quite competent to take up the

responsibilities to be thrust upon it. It will however be advisable to give the scheme a fair trial by accepting such suggestions which are capable of being put to practice immediately.

BENGAL FAMINE by Tarak Chandra Das, M.A. Published by University of Calcutta, Darbhanga Bldgs., Calcutta. Pages 154, price Rs. 6/-.

It may not be known to many that the victims of the Bengal Famine of 1943 far outnumbered the victims of the battle-fields of the last Great War. Destitutes thronged in thousands in Calcutta for a morsel of food, and died on the pavements unknown and unmourned. More than 97 per cent. of them were inhabitants of West Bengal and mostly derived from the lower strata of both Hindu and Muhammadan society. The socio-economic condition of these people formed the subject of a study by the Department of Anthropology of the University of Calcutta. The book under review traces the causes leading to the influx of the destitutes into Calcutta in 1943 and a pen picture of the life they led there. The book aims at supplying data about their main occupations, assets, indebtedness, social disintegration, etc. There is a full chapter analysing the general causes of the famine which have been classified under two broad divisions, viz.: basic and immediate causes. The principal basic causes are stated to be: Insufficiency of the staple food-grains produced in the province for its population, smallness and scatteredness of agriculture holdings, smallness of margin between subsistence and starvation of the Bengalees connected with land, extension of the cultivation of jute at the cost of food-grains, physical degeneration of the people produced by malnutrition and malaria. Among the immediate causes of the famine are natural calamities like flood, and cyclone in some parts of the province, hoarding of rice by farmers, merchants and well-to-do consumers, ineffective price-control by the Government of Bengal, denial policy, dislocation of transportation, inflation of currency, official corruption, etc. There is also a test survey of famine condition in Bengal villages from November 1943 to March 1944. A large number of illustrations and charts enhance the value of the book.

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24, Jambhwaladi, Bombay 2.

CONGRESS PUBLICATIONS

The following publications of the All-India Congress Committee, 7, Jantar Mantar Road, New Delhi have been received in our office:—

(1) **Third Year of Independence**, August 1949-August 1950, pages 119, price Rs. 1-8-0.

This volume records the general progress made in the affairs of the State by the Central and Provincial Governments and presents an account of the economic progress during the year on various subjects as Budget, Education, Public Health, Local Self-Government, Transport and Communications, Labour, Rehabilitation, etc.

(2) **Chief Ministers Speak**, pages 241, price Rs. 2-8.

This volume coming from the pen of Chief Ministers of the States in India, gives authoritative versions of the work achieved in various spheres in the States.

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CHITTARANJAN SPECIAL

The establishment of the Chittaranjan Locomotive Works will constitute a landmark in the development of Railway enterprise by the State in this country. The workshop will enable India to become self-sufficient in regard to all that appertains to our Railways. The project deserves to be more widely and properly appreciated. The East Indian Railway Magazine is therefore to be congratulated upon publishing a Chittaranjan Supplement which contains all particulars about how the Locomotives were started, how it was developing and what it would do. The Supplement is fully illustrated and will serve the purpose it was intended for. Price Rs. 3/-. It may be had at Fable Place, Calcutta.

A BOOK ON DOLLAR-RUPEE CALCULATION

We have received a copy of book entitled, **Dollar-Rupee Exchange Calculator**, by R. N. Sanyal. It contains useful tables of converting dollar into rupee and rupee into dollar at the discount, commission and interest tables. The present rate of exchange furnished with the book will be helpful to businessmen who have transactions with U. S. A. It is published by Messrs Sanyal & Co., 1/1A, College Square, Calcutta 12. Its price is Rs. 9/-.

THE EASTERN ECONOMIST

We have pleasure in receiving a copy of the annual number 1950 of the **Eastern Economist** published by the Eastern Economist Ltd., New Delhi. The annual number is broadly divided into two sections viz: (1) Analysis of India's economic life in relation to other countries in the World, and (2) the Nation's Economic system in 1950. The first section shows where India stands in the national income scale, how her agricultural production compares with that of other countries, how the industrial structure is undergoing changes under pressure of World trends and ends with a political epilogue. The second part surveys the Indian position in 1950 far as Indian agriculture, trades, industries,

stocks and shares, banking, etc. were concerned. There are a large number of charts plain and coloured, illustrating the balance of trade, direction of trade etc. The articles included in this Number are interesting in their own right and are marked with a refreshing outlook on the future of the country. We wish the wide publicity. This particular Number priced at Rs. 5/-.

NOTICES & REVIEW

(Manufacturers sending specimens samples of their products for notice and may please note that no notice in publish medical preparation and allied substance this section).

CALENDARS

We acknowledge with thanks the receipt of calendars from the following:—

Standard Vacuum Oil Co., 6, Church I Calcutta; P. K. Sen's Drugs & Chemical Works, 105/1, Ultradanga Main Road, Calcutta; Selen Publishing Co., 85, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta; Titagarh Paper Mills Co. Ltd., Chartered I Bldgs, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta; K. Brothers, 2619-2650, Jumma Masjid, Ahmedal

BRITISH INDUSTRIES FAIR

We have received a copy of the **Third Survey of British Industries Fair** to be held in London and Birmingham simultaneously between April 30 to May 11, 1951. A special significance attaches to this year's Fair as it coincides with the festival celebrating the centenary of the Great Exhibition of 1851. This issue shows how virtually every industry has been transformed beyond recognition during the century. Industries discussed in this number are Chemicals, Scientific Instruments, Glass and Ceramic Toys, Sporting Goods, Hardware, etc.

TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write to him direct with name and address given below mentioning industry).

69 N. Pattabramma Chettiar, Karur, S. I. Ry.—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of white cotton waste.

72 The Eagle Advertising Tape Factory, Eagle Wadi Kurla, Bombay—Want to be put in touch with the manufacturers of gummed paper tape roll of different sizes.

145 Ram Singh, C/o. New Bharat & Co., Eagle Wadi, Kurla, Bombay—Want to be put in touch with the manufacturers of celluloid plastic sheets.

193 Des Raj Madan, Guru Bagh, Banaras—Wants to be put in touch with the manufacturers of foot rules of wood and plastic.

*199 Sachida Nand, C/o. Shri Prem Nath Sahib, Advocate, Ferozepore City—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of tea tablets.

261 B.R., Tibarewala, P. O. Ratan Nagar, Bikaner—Wants to be put in touch with dealers in capship teets.

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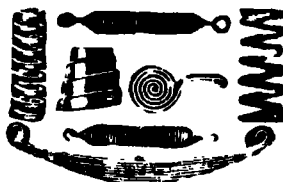
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Even the other day journalism was just another word for starvation. A journalist had no status. And to day if pen means anything mightier than sword it is only when that pen is wielded by a journalist. This journalism you have to culture - it is not a given sent fruit. You have to learn the elements before you achieve a finished collection. And if you are keen to know what all work behind the teleprinter, and to find out why dailies and news journals are so very indispensable with thousands & millions all over the world, you can add the following book to your collection. :

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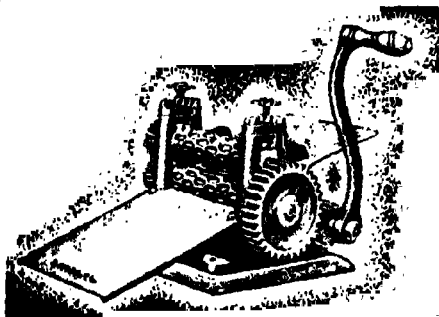
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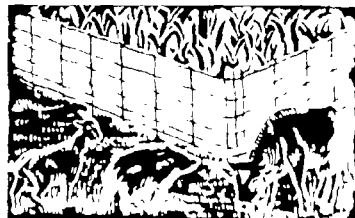
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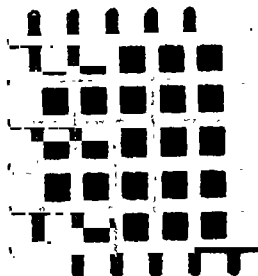


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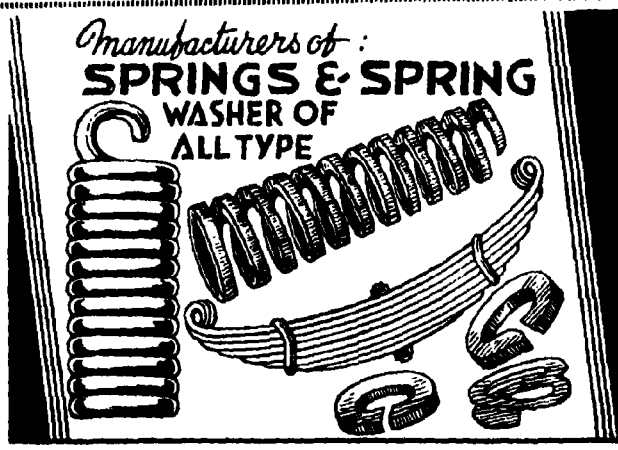
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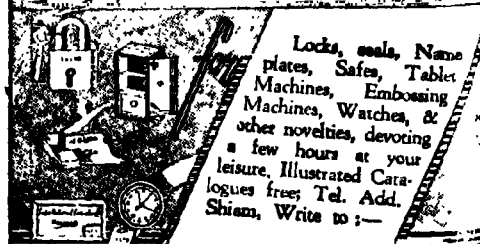
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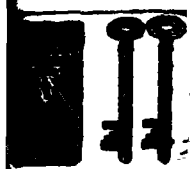
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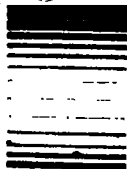


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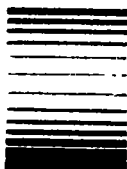
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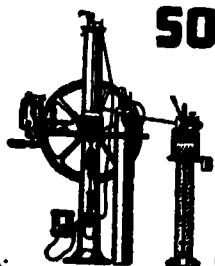
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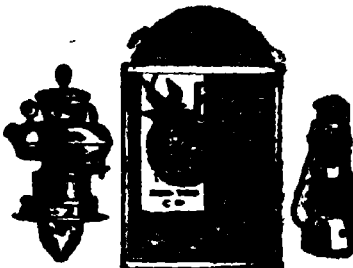
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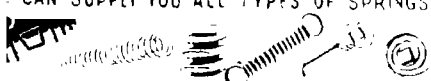
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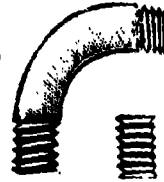
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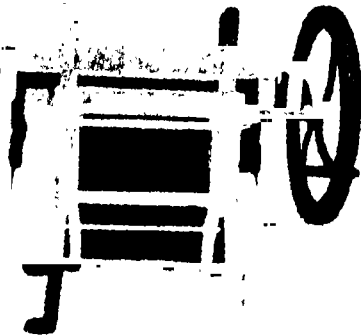
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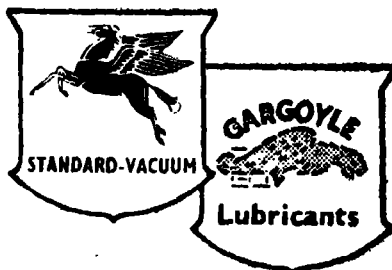
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Industry

EDITOR

N. BANERJEE

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CALCUTTA, MAY, 1951.

No. 494.

POPULATION AND FOOD

THE provisional figures of the 1951 Census just released by the Census Commissioner reveal a lot of interesting facts which need be taken into consideration in planning for the Indian Union as a whole.

The memorandum shows that the total population of the Indian Union, excluding for the time being that of Jammu and Kashmir, stands at 35.68 crores as against 31.48 crores in 1941 in the same territories now covered by the Indian Union. The population thus records a rise by 4.20 crores or 13.4 per cent over that of 1941. If to this we add the population of Jammu and Kashmir which aggregates 43 lakhs on March 1, 1950, the total population reaches the figure of 36.98 crores. The density of population thus comes to no less than 296 per square mile which compares with 123 in China, 23 in U. S. S. R., 50 in U. S. A., 135 in European countries, 210 in Pakistan, etc.

That there has been alarming rise in the population of the Indian Union will be evident from the fact that while during the decade 1921-31 the population rose by 27 lakhs annually, this rose by 39 lakhs annually during the decade 1931-41 and by 46 lakhs annually during the period covered by the present Census.

The population figures reveal that with 2.4 per cent of total world area and 15.1 per cent of total world population, India has a per capita of only 0.70 acre of agricultural areas and 0.24 acre of forest and woodlands. Taking into account the fact as asserted by the U. N. Secretariat which recently investigated about the food grains requirement of the world that 2.5 acres of cultivated land is necessary to feed a single human being throughout the year, hopes of attainment of food sufficiency in India become remote and there is great apprehension that a permanent shortage of food will continue in India unless efforts are now made to make scientific use of all available lands and introduce better system of cultivation with better seeds and manures. The problem of food supply in India is a very urgent one and must be faced with foresight and imagination. She cannot depend indefinitely on foreign imports, specially because the world population being on the increase at the rate of 70,000 a day, the chances of securing good stuff from foreign lands are also narrowing down.

-CURRENT TOPIC

GLASS INDUSTRY IN INDIA

The problems of the glass industry in India came up recently for a comprehensive review before the Planning Commission. It is stated that there are in all in operation 101 factories of all types of glass and glassware (excluding sheet glass and bangles) and their installed capacity is about 1,83,440 tons. Adding to this a capacity of about 28,000 tons for 33 units which have suspended production during the past two years, the total installed capacity comes to about 2,11,440 tons per annum. The sheet glass section consist of three units with a total installed capacity of about 23.4 million square feet. Besides, there are, about 100 factories of varying sizes, mostly on a cottage industry basis engaged in the manufacture of bangles.

It is understood that the production of glass and glassware (other than sheet glass and bangles) had been steadily increasing from about 66,000 tons in 1948 to about 81,000 tons in 1950. The sheet glass section, which had reached a peak production of 13 million square feet in 1944-45, suffered a setback during 1949, owing to excessive imports during the two preceding years. But, in 1950, there would appear to have been a recovery to 9.57 million sq. ft., approximately equivalent to 5,000 tons. The value of the current consumption of all types of glass and glassware is estimated to be over Rs. 10 crores, of which the indigenous production accounts for about Rs. 8 crores.

Improvement in quality depends on proper processing of sand. It has been most important raw material. It was accordingly suggested that all large factories should establish sand-washing plants, while small ones should combine and erect central washing plants at important

centres from which sand might be obtained. Sand from Travancore is stated to be of very good quality needing no washing and offering easy transport by rail. Manufacturers are also advised to take advantage of the testing and inspection facilities offered by the Central Glass and Ceramic Research Institute at Calcutta, by sending samples of raw material and finished products to the Institute for examination. The need for avoiding wastage of coal to reduce cost also has been emphasised.

At present, only three glass factories are stated to have been equipped with automatic machinery, the others manufacturing mostly with semi-automatic machinery. It was pointed out that caution was needed in regard to the introduction of automatic machines, because the market in this country for mass-produced goods for which automatic machines was limited and the pace of standardisation was slow. It was, however, emphasised that there were definite advantages to be secured by using automatic machines, such as uniformity and economy in raw material consumption. Only one of the firms engaged in manufacturing neutral glass was stated to have installed tube-drawing and automatic ampule-making machines. A scheme for manufacturing neutral glass in collaboration with an American firm has already been approved by the Government.

INDUSTRIAL FINANCE CORPORATION

The working of the Industrial Finance Corporation was recently discussed before the Rotarians. The Industrial Finance Corporation in India established in 1948, for rapid industrial reconstruction and development is a new experiment and it is therefore regrettable that in the

y, the Corporation has been expressly prohibited from subscribing directly to the shares or stock of any limited liability company. Such is calculated to restrict considerably scope and serviceability of the Corporation and to prevent it from pursuing methods of finance. What is truly required is not provision of mere capital but "risk" or "entrepreneur" capital. The Corporation is not a bank. It must be prepared to take much greater risk than a commercial bank, if it really is to assist in rapid industrialisation of the country, especially at a time when the capital is not coming forward through the formation of joint-stock companies.

The loans advanced by the Corporation have generally been made for a period of 2 years and sometimes for 15 years against the first mortgages of the assets of the companies like land, building plant and machinery. As a rule no loans are granted against hypothecation of stocks of raw materials and finished goods for working capital. It is considered that if the I.F.C. extends the period of loan to 20 years or more it will be a great help to its borrowing customers, especially those that require several years for development and earning of

profit. Further in making advances the Corporation should have adequate evidence that the loans are being used for the purpose for which these are granted. It is suggested that under the Corporation a full technical investigation department consisting of engineers, building experts, accountants etc. should be set up in order to act in close liaison with the borrowing concerns and not only to carry on medical investigation into the working of the concerns and give timely warning to the Corporation when symptoms of

danger are discerned, but also to make available to the customers the benefit of their expert advice.

Another serious defect in the Corporation is the absence of a department of economic research. It is high time that the Corporation appoints an economic adviser or director of economic research and takes steps to constitute an economic intelligence section.

WEST BENGAL INDUSTRIES

It is understood that the scheme for manufacture of penicillin under the auspices of the West Bengal Government will be finalised soon and technical personnel for the purpose is expected to arrive early.

As to manufacture of DDT and false plastic teeth in West Bengal, the State has to get a permit from the Government of India in respect of the former and orders have already been placed with a Swiss firm for machinery in respect of the latter. The machinery is expected to arrive soon. The manufacture of DDT alone will be shared with private enterprise.

Setting up a factory for manufacturing of salt on Contai sea-coast and execution of a number of electrification schemes are also under Government's contemplation. Of these North Calcutta Electrification Scheme has already been in progress.

Besides these, Government are running certain production units for the expansion and development of such cottage industries as khadi, silk, handloom weaving, handmade paper and ceramics. Government it is understood, has however no intention of acquiring any existing trade or industry in the State.

ELECTRIC FANS

At present there are about thirty factories in India manufacturing electric

fans on an organised basis. The total capacity is 310,800 fans a year. Calcutta and the industrial suburbs have the largest concentration of fan-making units in the whole of India. As many as 17 factories are situated in West Bengal turning out over 68 per cent. of India's total production of fans. The present annual demand for ceiling and table fans is estimated to be 140,000 and 60,000 respectively. The demand is in fact flexible and increasing every year with the improvement in the standard of living and with the increase in the area electrified and the number of new towns and cities.

In view of the decision of the Government to fit class III passenger coaches with electric fans, the demand for railway carriage fans is showing a rise. While the present demand for this kind of fans is estimated normally at 12,000 a year, it is quite possible that it will double or treble itself within the next two or three years. There are at present at least eight firms manufacturing on an average 1000 carriage fans a month.

It may be of some interest to note that the ratio between the cost of indigenous raw material and components and that of imported stuff is forty to sixty. This means that the bulk of the raw material is indigenous. Until two years ago we had to depend on imports for the supply of electrical steel sheets. To-day the electrical steel sheets of the dynamo grade produced in India are more than sufficient to meet the requirements of the fan industry.

In manufacturing ceiling fans the Indian industry is setting new standards of efficiency. Efforts are now being made to perfect the oscillating mechanism in a table fan which the industry had not yet been able to manufacture satisfactorily. The fan industry is still dependent on im-

ports of enamelled wire and materials and to a certain extent requirements of high class varnishes.

It is encouraging that despite cuties the Indian Fan manufacturing industry has shown efficiency in following an ever-rising curve of production which may reach a level of export surplus of its ability to neighbouring countries in the near future.

DEVELOPMENT SCHEMES IN PAKIS

The development schemes in Pakistan for the year 1951-52 were envisaged in the Budget Speech of the Finance Minister of Pakistan.

It is said that the six-year development plan of Pakistan represents the endeavour to improve the economic objectives of the country and to take account of its basic requirements. The Economic Council, with full powers to implement the plan, and Planning Commission with sub-commissions have been set up. Expert advice has been obtained from some of the projects included in the plan have been examined by the experts of the International Bank which has expressed readiness to negotiate loans for Pakistan and to meet the requirements of external finance to the tune of sixty million dollars.

One of the fields in which there has been considerable improvement is that of cotton textiles. Pakistan is at present producing about one third of the total cloth requirements and the output will be substantially increased by the end of December 1951. Orders for 25 lakh spindles, costing nearly Rs. 8 crore, will shortly be placed on behalf of the Government, in addition to an equal number of spindles allotted to private parties. When this present programme of nearly nine lakh spindles is completed the country will have enough capacity to

produce twelve yards of cloth per capita. Steps for the manufacture of woollen textiles have also made considerable progress and a purchase mission has gone broad to finalise the purchase of machinery and other equipment for two Government mills.

Three jute mills, for which machinery have been ordered, are under construction at Narayanganj (East Pakistan). One of them is expected to go into production by the middle of the year, followed by the second mill in 1952 and the third mill in 1953. Pakistan Government has also agreed to participate in the establishment of three other jute mills.

Exceedingly good progress has been made with the paper mill project and it is hoped that by the middle of 1952, the country will become largely independent of imports of quality paper. Other industries which have registered appreciable progress include chemicals, soda ash and caustic soda, leather, cement, pharmaceuticals and coal-mining. The development of coal mining has resulted in the production of coal going up by nearly 30 per cent. It is further noted that Rs. 82 crores have been earmarked for agriculture in the six year-development plan. Government is planning to set up an Agricultural Development Finance Corporation with a capital of Rs. 5 crores, and a bill on the subject will be introduced in the legislature in the present session.

The development of commercial banking has made steady progress during the year and 29 new offices—7 in West Pakistan and 12 in East Pakistan have been opened by scheduled banks. The National Bank of Pakistan has opened 8 new offices bringing the total number of its offices to 16.

NEW INDO-EGYPTIAN TRADE PACT

The Commerce and Industry Ministry lately announced the conclusion of a fresh trade agreement between India and Egypt. The agreement takes retrospective effect from March 1, 1951, and is to remain valid upto February 29, 1952. The last agreement between India and Egypt was from July 1949, and it expired in July last. After the expiry of the last agreement, a barter pact was concluded providing for import of rice against jute goods while the renewal of the agreement was under consideration. The new agreement makes no provision for the import of foodgrains from Egypt and export of jute manufactures from India, but it is understood that a separate pact will be concluded later to cover these commodities. In 1948-49 the value of India's imports from Egypt were Rs. 31.89 crores and exports Rs. 7 crores. In 1949-50 imports totalled Rs. 39.4 crores and exports Rs. 7.85 crores while for 1950-51 (upto December 1950) the corresponding figures were Rs. 18.77 crores and exports Rs. 4.02 crores. From Egypt cotton is the principal commodity India imported. Under a clause in the agreement the two countries will accord to each other "the most favoured nation treatment".

Exports from Egypt to India under the new agreement will include raw cotton, cotton yarn, gypsum and flax. Exports from India to Egypt will include tea, unmanufactured tobacco, certain oils and oil seeds, shellac, coffee, cotton piecegoods, manufactures of iron and steel, cutlery, electrical goods and sanitary ware.

ATOMIC RESEARCH

That valuable deposits of atomic energy minerals have been discovered in India is gathered from the reply by Shri Sri Prakasa, Minister for Natural Resources and Scientific Research while

Bonding Material — The bonding material used in crucible industry should (i) be highly plastic and have good cover-power, (ii) afford good protection to the metal against oxidation, (iii) be capable of adhering to graphite grains and ensure adequate green strength, (iv) be free from impurities — particularly grains of low-melting fluxes, and (v) have adequate refractoriness and dense texture, resistance to erosion action at the temperature at which the crucible is applied, and be thermally stable at that temperature. Of these, the last condition is important. Graphite crucibles are used for melting metals having widely differing melting temperatures. Thus, while a crucible for brass melting must have adequate strength

and resistance to penetration by slag or metal at temperatures near about 1100°C. the crucibles for cast iron must have the same strength at 1250°C. and that for steel in the range of 1400° to 1600°C. Thus, the importance of a thorough knowledge of refractoriness and other properties of clays at high temperature becomes obvious in crucible manufacture.

FORMING METHODS

Body Mixer & Mixing Procedure—Much of the information on this subject is a trade secret and is not easily available. Some of the compositions tried on a laboratory scale and found satisfactory are given in Table I.

Table I.—Crucible Mixture Compositions.

Constituents.	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)	(i)	(j)	(k)	(l)
Graphite, %	40	40	42	43	42	42	40	46	43	49	44	50
Clay, %	40	37	36	35	34	32	32	32	31	31	30	30
Silicon carbide, %	10	13	12	12	14	16	18	12	16	10	16	10
Grog (% of the total body)	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

for steel-melting crucibles, kaolin, in mixtures with more plastic bentonite or all clays, forms a suitable bonding material. Siliceous clays, Jubbulpore and other varieties, may prove suitable for iron melting crucibles and the same mixed with bentonite or plastic material of lower fusibility may prove suitable for brass foundry crucibles. For iron and other low temperature melting, the crucibles have to have a bond which suits those temperatures. This aspect of crucible industry has not received much attention in India.

In India, the choice of bonding clays is limited to a few siliceous fireclays of Rajhara and Jubbulpore and the alumina clays from Messrs Bird & Company clay quarries. These clays have very high refractoriness in the range

made with these clays have given a tolerably good service in the cast iron foundries. Below this range, they are highly permeable and above this, refractoriness, particularly of Rajhara and Jubbulpore clays, deteriorates rapidly, and their strength is inadequate for steel foundry.

Fireclay Grog—In U.S.A. and other foreign countries only graphite and bond clay go into the crucible mix. Recently, however, carborundum is replacing a part of graphite. The use of silicon carbide is not manufactured in this country and is very costly. The fireclay grog used is usually of the same clay as has been used in the bond. Clean graded grog is usually employed.

The use of binders, plasticizers and

temperature. In this country, however, the use of such ingredients, particularly alkalies and alkali silicates, has not found favour.

The clay in compositions (a) and (b) was a mixture of Jubbulpore fireclay and bentonite in the ratio of 95: 5. Jubbulpore clay was used in others. The following is the grain size of the constituents:

	Grain size between
Graphite	40 to 100 mesh.
Silicon carbide	50 "
Clay	100 "
Grog	16 "

The mixing of ingredients by such methods as pugging by feet, in vogue in India, are inefficient and large quantities of air gets entrapped in the wet mix. Also manual methods of mixing need a higher percentage of water than mechanical methods. Both these factors render the resulting body porous. Porosity may be a distinct advantage in a fireclay grog body as it gives certain amount of resistance to thermal shock, but is, to a large extent, unnecessary in a graphite clay body, as it increases the vulnerability of the crucible wall to metal and slag penetration. It is, therefore, considered better to mix the constituents dry in a suitable mixer, and knead the mix with minimum quantity of water in a Werner Pfleiderer type of kneading mill or pass it through a de-airing pug mill. This may give a workable mix with enough green strength to stand forming and finishing.

Crucible-making—The usual methods employed in making crucibles are (i) pugging in plaster moulds, and (ii) pressing in steel dies in hydraulic or mechanical presses. The Indian manufacturers, however, have adopted a different method. A wooden or machined cast iron mould and a plunger of similar

material are usually employed. The manual operations involved in the process increases the cost of manufacture and uniformity of products is not obtained.

Graphite crucibles depend for their mechanical strength and conductivity on the orientation of the graphite particles in the body. Thus (i) the flakes should be parallel to each other and parallel to the outer surface of the crucible wall, and (ii) must be as closely packed together as possible. In the forming process, therefore, the pressure applied must be so directed as to achieve the above orientation and the pressures used in the various stages of forming must, as far as possible, be similar to each other in direction.

The authors are not aware of any slip-casting work done in graphite crucible manufacture. The slip-casting method, however, has its advantages for the production of crucibles in the small size range (gold and silversmiths crucibles) and may be worth investigating, particularly as it is easy to get dense, thin-walled ware by this method. Similarly, dust-pressing and hot-pressing methods have certain advantages. One advantage is that items like ladle plugs, stoppers and lids can be mass produced. These are promising lines for investigation.

For satisfactory drying of green crucibles, it is necessary to have a good control over humidity, temperature and speed of the draught of air employed for drying. In the absence of proper control, internal weaknesses develop in the crucible walls and there will be a lack of uniformity from one batch of crucibles produced to another. Thus, standardization of drying methods, design and application of suitable driers are of great importance in this industry.

Glazing—Glazing of graphite crucibles is necessary as, in the initial stages of

service, the finished, unglazed crucible is raised to about 100° to 120° C. and absorbs moisture from the atmosphere, there until all the moisture has been removed. Then the fires are built on which is harmful. Besides, the graphite particles may get oxidized. The glaze is the temperature is raised to 500° C. usually a felspathic glass high in about 3 to 4 hr. Between 500° to 650° manganese dioxide. It is fritted, quenched and slip ground to the required fineness. This slip is applied by brush on to a soaking (for the combined moisture of the dry green crucible before further drying. clay to go out) is given. Temperature next raised to 1000° C., another soaking given at this temperature for not less than 8 to 10 hr. (to equalize the temperature all over) and then the kiln is turned off. The whole firing schedule takes 2 to 30 hr. Strict precautions are taken to prevent ingress of air into the kiln during cooling.

The composition and mode of application of the glaze has not been fully examined by Indian manufacturers. High manganese dioxide glazes are difficult to melt because they need comparatively high temperatures and longer founding time. As they are usually deep violet in colour, it is not easy to determine whether all the batch ingredients have melted. In many instances manganese dioxide continues to remain in a state of suspension. This fact has been overlooked by the Indian manufacturers, who have been applying an unfritted mixture of manganese dioxide and other glass batch ingredients. Secondly, no attempt has been made to fit the glaze to the body. There is no universal glaze which can fit all types of bodies and each individual body needs a suitable composition.

Firing—The Indian manufacturers employ ordinary coal-fired, down-draft kilns for the purpose. The crucibles are set in saggars, the smaller sizes being nested in larger sizes. The saggars are filled tight with coke dust. Each sagger has its own lid luted on with a fireclay-grog paste and the individual sagger bungs are further luted with the same paste as a precaution against leakage of furnace gases into the saggars and burning away of coke. The arrangement has worked out very satisfactorily.

The firing schedule consists of a preliminary drying period in which the kiln

When the furnace has cooled the crucibles are taken out and given a coat of varnish and stored in waterproof casks before despatch.

SERVICEABILITY

For satisfactory service a crucible must have (i) an adequate refractoriness under load, (ii) a high thermal shock resistance, (iii) thermoplasticity, (iv) resistance to mechanical abrasion, and (v) resistance to slag and metal attack.

The Indian graphite crucibles have given reasonably good service in the iron foundry field. Up to size 60, the crucibles have given a good performance. Sizes beyond number 80 have given poor performances. Salamander crucibles last on an average 30 heats in a pit furnace. The Indian crucibles have sometimes given 26 heats, but in general are not so satisfactory. An important property of the Salamander crucibles that the Indian crucibles do not have is that the former are serviceable even when they have worn out very thin. This indicates a remarkable uniformity of texture of the Salamander crucibles.

CONCLUSION

It will be apparent from the foregoing that the Indian crucible industry suffers

Three major technological drawbacks—namely (i) selection of bonding material leaves much to desire inasmuch as the crucibles are unsuitable for application in non-ferrous and steel foundries. Detailed study will have to be made of the clays available for the purpose in India and suitable blends will have to be developed, (ii) manufacturing methods

need mechanization and standardization, (iii) the protective coats for the crucibles should be studied, and (iv) processing of the body constituents and forming ware are problems that require investigation. The future success of the Indian crucible industry depends to a great extent in finding satisfactory solutions for these problems.

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—MANUFACTURE OF BELTING LEATHER

LEATHER belting is an important article in engineering workshops. Without this the efficiency of the work is much hampered. This belting leather is made from strong buffalo and ox hides.

Leather belts must be tough, flexible, fairly resisting to heat and not too greasy. Formerly vegetable tanned leather suitably carried was used for the belts. But now-a-days chrome tanned belts are preferred, as they are very tough, flexible and stand heat much better than the vegetable tanned variety.

RAW MATERIALS

Either thick, ox or buffalo hides are used for making leather for belts. Ox hides being of a close texture produce a better and more durable leather than buffalo hides, the texture of which is comparatively loose. But as ox hides of an adequate thickness are not available in this country buffalo hides are the chief raw material for making belts leather.

Spready and thick buffalo hides, the major portion of which may yield leather of about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thickness should be selected. The hides of female buffaloes are preferable to those of male animals, as the former are closer in texture and tougher in substance than the latter. Male buffalo hides produce a thick spongy leather which is decidedly inferior to the leather obtained from she-buffalo hides.

Whenever possible the hides should be brought from sources of collection in the wet-salted condition. In winter months there is little risk of putrefaction if the hides are well salted. But in summer putrefaction may set in during transit, specially in railway wagons which get very hot in the strong summer sun. Application of one or two coats of a 5 per

cent solution of zinc chloride before salting will immensely improve the preservation of the hides.

Dry and dry salted buffalo hides often contain in the pack damaged hides which putrefy either entirely or in places. They should be soaked in lime liquor. Hence there is some uncertainty as to results, when large stocks are handled. In India, the dry-salted goods cannot, however, be altogether avoided as bulk of the hides are preserved by dry or dry-salting.

SOAKING

Green hides are washed in several changes of water to cleanse while dry-salted hides are soaked until they are sufficiently soft. Either caustic soda or sodium sulphide is used in the proportion of 1 part of the former or 2 parts of the latter for 1000 parts of the soak water. The operation of soaking should be done in pits and in drums, which will make the hides rather too soft.

ROUNDING

Only the butt portion of hides will yield beltings of the required thickness and strength. Hence soaked hides are rounded into butt, bellies and shoulder. In rounding care should be taken to cut out the butt in such a way that there may not be much wastage of leather in cutting strips for belts, while bellies and shoulders (offal) are treated for vegetable tanning for making insole leather.

UNHAIRING AND LIMING

A sodium sulphide and lime paste made from 1 part sodium sulphide, 2 parts lime and sufficient water to make the mixture of a soupy consistency. This paste is applied on the flesh side of but

ich are then folded down the ridge and n again at the middle so as to make a it bundle. The pasted and folded butts kept overnight, and the following rning they are laid flat in a pit contain- freshly made lime liquor. The butts handled once or twice in this lime ing the day. They are taken out, un- red, washed and fleshed. The fleshed e are then weighed. After weighing e are washed in pit at first in 2 or 3 nges of water and subsequently in a n solution for an hour using $1\frac{1}{2}$ per r borax on the pelt weight in a sufficient t of water.

DELIMING

The well washed butts are now delim- Formerly deliming was done by bating hen or pigeon dung in a pit or paddle now-a-days weak acids and synthetic ng materials are employed. According ne method the butts are first bated by bling in the drum for about 2 hours in lution of synthetic bate peroly, panc- or oropon. One pound of the bate per pounds of pelt may be used. When have been delimited to the nt of one-third of their thickness on grain and flesh sides, the butts are n out and scudded. They are next ted with a solution of boric acid of h 2 per cent on the pelt weight should sed and the drumming continued until deliming takes place which should be rtained by the phenolphthalin tube. boric acid should be added in two lments.

According to another method the butts rst treated with 1 per cent acetic acid n hour, then they are bated with 1 cent pancreol, peroly, oropon or any r synthetic enzyone bate for an hour, scudded. All the materials are oied on the pelt weight.

After full deliming the butts are ed.

PICKLING

The pickling is done in $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent Sulphuric Acid (sp. gr. 1.74) and 15 per cent salt on pelt weight. The butts are run in the pickle for about 3 hours. Then they are tanned.

Instead of acid and salt, pickling may be done with alum and salt using 6 per cent of each on the pelt weight and keep- ing them in pits overnight in the bath.

TANNING

Tanning may be done by either the double or single bath chrome process. The double bath process causes deposition of sulphur on the fibres, which is supposed to render the leather capable of withstand- ing the somewhat high temperature to which belts are raised, due to the mecha- nical action to which they are subjected. It is better than the leather tanned by the single bath method.

DOUBLE BATH PROCESS

In the Handbook of Tanning by Mr. B. M. Das the following process has been dealt with. Here the pickled goods are entered into the first or the chroming bath which may be prepared as under:—

Take on the pelt weight:—

Bichromate of soda	8	per cent.
Sulphuric acid		
(sp. gr. 1.74)	$3\frac{1}{2}$	" "
Common salt	8	" "

Dissolve these ingredients and prepare the bath with sufficient water to give the goods an ample float. Put the goods in this liquid for about 6 hours at the end of which cut a portion of a hide from its thickest part and see if the yellow colour of the chromic acid has penetrated completely into the hide. If it is yellow throughout the thickness of the hide, the chroming is over. If there be a white streak at the centre, the penetration of the chromic acid is still incomplete and the

period of coaking may be continued. The fully chromed butts are taken out of the pit and horsed up covering the pile with canvas or tarpaulin to protect them from the action of light which is injurious at this stage.

Next morning the reduction or the hypo bath is prepared in the following manner:—Dissolve in a tub 20 per cent hypo on the pelt weight and add the solution with sufficient water. Put in 8 per cent of salt on the pelt weight and stir well so as to dissolve the salt in the liquor.

In another tub dilute 5 per cent Sulphuric acid (sp. gr. 1.47) on the pelt weight with sufficient water.

Add one-third of the dilute acid to the hypo liquor in the drum, stir up well and enter the goods. Close the mouth and run it half an hour, then add another one-third of the acid to the drum through the hollow axle while the drum is still rotating. After further one hour the last portion of the acid is put in and the drumming continued until the reduction is complete. This is ascertained by cutting a piece from the thickest portion of a butt. If the colour is blue throughout its entire thickness, all the chromic acid has been reduced to the basic chromic salt and the reduction is complete. If the cut shows a yellow streak, the process of drumming in hypodissolution should be prolonged with further addition of hyposalt and acid if required, adding them in the proportion of 4 to 1.

After complete reduction has been effected a piece should be cut out from a butt and boiled for 5 minutes. If it does not shrink, tannage is thorough. If there be shrinkage, tanning is still deficient. Leather tanned by the double bath process does not always stand the boiling test, but it does not matter as very nice strong and durable belts are obtained from leather which does not satisfy the boiling test. If it is desired that the leather should stand

the boiling test, the pelt should be given further treatment with a quantity of single bath basic chrome liquor. This may be added to the reduction bath without taking the butts out of the drum, and the addition of the single bath liquor and drumming should be continued until the boiling test is satisfied.

The butts are then taken out and horsed up.

Another typical recipe follows:—

Bichromate of potash	2	per cent
Hydrochloric acid	1	"
Common salt	5	"
Reducing bath		
upto 30 per cent	Hyposulphite	
	soda	
3	"	"
	Hydrochloric acid	

Percentages are reckoned on the weight of the delimed pelt.

TANNING BY SINGLE BATH PROCESS

This may be carried out in the same manner. A very convenient plan is to add the single bath chrome liquor to the pickling bath through the hollow axle and complete the tannage in this bath by adding the whole quantity of the liquor in several instalments as the tannage proceeds. Towards the end of the process about 1 to 1½ per cent soda ash on the pelt weight should be dissolved and added to the dip to increase the basicity of the liquor with a view to make the tannage thorough. The chrome liquor should be of basicity about 52:100 to start off with and increased to above 52:80 by adding soda ash. The proper quantity of soda ash to be added would depend upon the acid present in the pickle bath and the basicity of the stock chrome liquor and can only be formulated out by experience. The soda should be added in 2 or 3 portions either mixing with the last few instalments of the chrome liquor or after all the liquor has been put in.

SAMMING AND SHAVING

The butts are then taken out and pressed up to drain. They are sammed by passing through the samming machine or hanging up in the air. They are now stretched and shaved to make the thickness uniform throughout. The shaved butts are stretched.

NEUTRALIZING

Neutralization follows shaving. The best material to use for it is borax of which 1 per cent on the shaved weight is employed. About 1 per cent soda ash may also be used instead of borax. Soda ash neutralizes more rapidly, but its action is more drastic than that of borax. Considerable economy may be effected without deteriorating the quality by neutralizing the surface first with about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent soda ash and completing the neutralization with 1 per cent borax. The butts should be run in borax or soda until a reaction cut from a thick place of the leather shows on testing with blue litmus paper that it is properly neutralized. After adequate neutralization the goods are washed in 3 changes of water at about 60°C. The last wash water is run off and the butts are subjected to other treatment specially for belts.

Belting leather need not be so pliable that for picking hand and must be absolutely stretchless. On account of this a limited amount of grease is incorporated into it, as grease makes the leather both pliable and stretchy. Some makers omit the fat-liquoring operation altogether. They stretch out the neutralized and sammed butts on stretching frames and coat the grain with a fairly thick mineral oil. A thick lubricating oil may be used for the purpose. The flesh side is lightly coated either with dubbing made from tallow and fish oil or with a mixture of degreas and vaseline. The stretching is effected slowly.

Others fat-liquor lightly. A fat-liquor made with 2 per cent. hard soap and 1 per cent. castor oil on the shaved weight of the leather may be used. After drumming slowly for about an hour in the fat-liquor the butts are taken out and horsed up overnight. Next day they are slicked and nailed out on frames straining to the utmost extent to take as much of the stretch out of the leather as possible. The butts are dried out completely. They are then off the frames and put in damp sawdust overnight. They are then stacked and nailed out again on frames and dried out completely.

The butts are fluffed on the flesh side, rolled heavily, and french chalked on both grain and flesh.

Chrome belting leather is also sometimes stuffed with grease. The composition of grease determines the character of the leather as regards either firmness or pliability. A typical stuffing mixture is given by H. G. Crockete in his book "Practical Leather Manufacture," on page 131:—

Paraffin wax	40 parts.
Tallow or stearine	30 ..
Degras	30 ..

The leather after adequate samming preferably by a samming machine is stuffed in the hot air stuffing tumbler at a temperature of 50° to 60°C. The amount of the stuffing mixture used depends upon the pliability desired in the leather, 10 to 30 per cent in the weight of sammed leather may be employed.

After stuffing the butts are set out and hung up to dry partially. They are set out again tacked on boards and dried out completely. The butts are trimmed, rolled and brushed by machine. To remove stretch they are stretched out on stretching machines.

The leather is now ready for cutting into straps for machine belts.

—Construction of Fluorescent Lamp

FLUORESCENT lighting began with the discovery of the fluorescent powders giving white or nearly white light. Before the II World War, high voltage tubes were in use and experimental lamps working at mains voltage had been made. The war prevented the commercial development of these low-voltage lamps. Since then rapid progress has been made.

The high efficiency of the lamps has been further increased, different colours introduced, a variety of sizes made, and large scale production set going.

Using far more materials than ordinary lamps, and calling for more elaborate processes, the lamps are nevertheless being made at the rate of thousands a day in a typical large factory.

Main components are the glass tube, the "seals" carrying the electrodes, the fluorescent powder with which the inside of the tube is coated, and the gas filling. The glass tubes are made by automatic machinery and are delivered, cut to length, the tubes being dry cleaned internally before use in the factory. The various types of fluorescent powder are ground under carefully controlled conditions to obtain the desired particle sizes and mixed in a thin cream in nitro-cellulose, which serves as a binding medium. The quantities of powder and binder must be correct within narrow limits to ensure uniformity of coating thickness.

The glass tubes are held vertically over tanks holding the suspension, which is then forced up inside the tubes to the required level by means of compressed air, and in draining back leaves a film of powder and binder adhering to the glass. After a short draining period the tubes are placed in a drying tower where they re-

main for some 30 minutes by which the fluorescent coating is adhering firmly enough to the glass to prevent detachment by further handling.

Frequent tests are made on the viscosity of the fluorescent mixture. This is important as any variation may affect the adhesion of the powder to the tube and the efficiency at which the lamp will operate.

After the application of the coating the tubes are stamped with the trade mark and other relevant details and passed through a gas furnace in which they are heated to a temperature which decomposes and evaporates the binder leaving a thin dry coating of powder adhering to the glass tube. As they emerge the quality of coating is checked. Simultaneously with this check of the coating, the powder is buffed off the ends of the tubes to have them with the exact length of coating required for subsequent operations.

At each end of the fluorescent lamp there is a cathode, consisting of a tungsten coiled-coil filament, and an anode which, according to lamp rating, either takes the form of a pair of metal plates attached to the leading in wires, or is an integral part of these wires.

The assemblies upon which the electrodes are mounted follow the same general design as the airtight "pinch" which is so familiar a part of an ordinary electric lamp. Current is carried to and from the electrodes by leading in wires made in three parts—copper for the external contact to the cap, copper plated nickel iron for the airtight joint, nickel inside the lamp. Flanged glass tubing provides a means for sealing this assembly to the bulb, and a smaller glass

allows the lamp to be exhausted and is filled at a later stage.

After these components of the "pinch" have been welded together on automatic machinery, the nickel lead wires are bent in a jig to the required shapes and the cathodes clamped into position, anode wires where required being spot-welded to extensions of the leads. The cathodes are then coated with electron emitting materials, consisting of a mixture of barium and strontium carbonates in an ethrocellulose "binder," the latter being decomposed subsequently by passing a small current through the electrodes.

The completed assemblies are then placed in the heads of a rotary machine where a coated glass tube is placed over each.

Means of gas jets the ends of each are in turn joined to the flange of the assembly and the surplus glass of the tube falls away. The lamps are now exhausted, "closed" with pure mercury and filled with argon, this being carried out on multi-head automatic machines. The air is removed in successive stages by an all-glass mercury vapour pump system which produces an extremely high degree of vacuum. During the exhausting pro-

cess, the lamps are subjected to a temperature of $480^{\circ}\text{C}.$, this having the effect of driving from the glass any occluded gases, which are then removed by the pump. The coated cathodes are heated by the passing of a progressively increasing current and the gas so freed is likewise removed by the pumps, the flow of heat from the cathode will serve to activate the emissive coating.

The exhaust machine cycle concludes with introduction of a small quantity of argon and the sealing of the exhaust stem. The caps, which have previously been filled with cement, are placed in position and are firmly fixed by baking in the capping machine, the lead-in wires being subsequently soldered to the cap terminals.

The lamps, now complete, proceed to the ageing rack where current is applied for about 30 minutes to stabilise the lamps ready for use. They are then subjected to a thorough test for general overall efficiency before being packed and put into stock ready for transport.

The table giving below types which have been standardised by several leading manufacturers:—

FLUORESCENT LAMP DATA

Lamp Rating (Watts)	Lamp Running Current (Amps.)	Choke Loss (Watts)	Nominal overall Length (Ins.)	Bulb Diameter (Ins.)	Average Life (Hours)	Average Light output and Daylight Warm White	Lamp Cap	Natural
80	0.85	20	60	1½	3,000	3,040	B.C.	2710
40	0.41	12	48	1½	2,500	1,720	Bi-pin	1520
30	0.34	10	36	1	2,500	1,200	Bi-pin	1080
40	0.85	20	24	1½	2,500	1,160	Bi-pin	1040
20	0.35	12	24	1½	2,500	620	Bi-pin	560
15	0.30	10	18	1	2,500	420	Bi-pin	375

LAMPS FOR A LIVING ROOM

(175—200 sq. ft.)

Type of
Lighting Fitting.
General Diffusing

Mainly
Indirect

Number and size of
Fluorescent Lamps.

.....	2-30 Watt (3-ft.) or
.....	2-40 Watt (2-ft.) or
.....	4-20 Watt (2-ft.) or
.....	6-15 Watt (18-in.) or
.....	3-30 Watt (3-ft.) or
.....	Combination of
.....	2-40 Watt (2-ft.) and
.....	2-20 Watt (2-ft.)

A possible cause of complaint among users is that of choke harm. Even with good quality components there is sometimes a disturbance which can be detected by those possessing good hearing. One cure is to locate the choke in a remote position and a further precaution is to arrange for insulated mounting.

Sometimes there is dissatisfaction due to flicker from the ends of the fluorescent lamp becoming noticeable in the "corner of the eye," producing visual disturbance when one is not looking directly at the lamps. The solution is to see that fittings are designed to shield the ends of the lamps.

The general tendency is to design fluorescent lighting fittings so as to accommodate the choke and condenser, provision being made for adequate ventilation and protection against mechanical damage. If there are instances where this is not done, the auxiliary gear, if located within 12 ins. vertically and 6 ins. in any other direction of soft good or other combustible material, should be enclosed in a fireproof housing.

With regard to power factor, it is sometimes found more economical in large installations, to arrange for multiple correction of a bank of fluorescent lamps rather than correct each individual lamp. If the former method is adopted the installation must be such that a power-factor condenser of suitable capacity is inserted across the mains in each portion

of the sub-circuit controlled by a separate switch.

On the subject of switching, the fact that some types of switches are specifically designed to break in inductive load at full rating. If used to control fluorescent lamps these types must have a current rating of at least twice the value of the steady current they normally carry.

Similarly circuit wiring should not be rated to carry merely the nominal steady current. The known or measured current should be multiplied by the factor 1.2. If the current cannot easily be measured and providing the power factor is corrected to 0.85 or better, it is permissible to calculate the circuit rating by multiplying lamp wattage by two and dividing by mains voltage. Where the circuit includes tungsten lamps, the extra current required for these is obtained simply by dividing lamp watts by main voltage.

A most important precaution, often overlooked, is to ensure that all exposed metalwork shall be earthed and fittings should be provided with earthing terminals accordingly. Although fluorescent lamps may be operated on DC mains, this involves certain complications in wiring and switching and in any case performance is not up to the standard that on AC. If, however, the circumstances are such that motor generators or convertors are employed for the provision of the requisite AC, the circuit should be earthed to one terminal of the generator or convertor.

—TASAR SILK.

By BENODE BEHARI THAKUR.

TASAR (Kosa or Koushik Bastra) is indigenously known throughout the country and was perhaps one of the oldest rural gift of occupations to a number of people. Besides the luxury value attached to silk, a symbolic and sacred importance is attached to it by the Hindus, and it is that refers to the *Kshoumabastra* in Manusamhita and Rigveda. To many people as yet, in the country side in the part of India, the use of silkcloth as *attabastras* is as yet served by Kosa cloth and they know very little of the superior silk of mulberry variety. Tasar is grown by a kind of silkworms (*Anthea Mylitta*) more prone to natural conditions, on different kinds of trees in the open generally in the forests. They grow in the wild and semidomesticated state, commonly on Asan, Saj, Yen (*Terminalia Tomentosa*) Sal (*Shorea robusta*) and also sometimes on *Terminalia arjuna*, *Zizyphus Jujubaer* (Kul or Khar) trees. The forest area of Central Provinces and Berar, Behar and Orissa and Hyderabad (Deccan) and as Bengal which once included the districts of Shingbhum, Manbhum, and Santhal Parganas, Ranchi, Hazaribagh and Moyurpattan State produced ample quantities of Tasar, so much so that after a major portion of half of the annual production of Tasar silk, were used by the weavers of Bankura, Birbhum, Burdwan, Hooghly and Midnapore, quite a good quantity of say 2,25,000 lbs. of Tasar reeled in the factories of M/s. Louis Payen & Co., at their Murshidabad Factories, used to be exported to France annually. About 5,000 families of weavers consisting of about 20,000 people of the districts now in West Bengal, depended on Tasar

spinning and weaving. Bengal Tasar as such had a good name, in the foreign market.

Even today, India, exported mostly through the Calcutta Port, the following quantities of Tasar waste to abroad at rates very liberal.

Year.	lbs.	Approximate Value Rs.
1942-43	3,40,000	6,50,000
1943-44	89,000	1,00,000
1944-45	40,000	1,70,000
1945-46	1,15,000	1,50,000

*The figures are exclusive of exports of mulberry-silk-waste.

Though at present, the production of Tasar cocoons within the areas of West Bengal might be negligible, a fair quantity of Tasar would be in demand by the weavers of the districts mentioned above. They could get their Tasar yarn or cocoons from the neighbouring districts of Behar mostly and portions from Orissa and Central Provinces. This demonstrates that though the area of production of Tasar in Bengal might be negligible, production of Tasar yarn within the areas of West Bengal, and exports of Tasar wastes through Bengal, still take a prominent part.

PRODUCTION OF TASAR COCOONS

Production of Tasar cocoons no doubt provides a good subsidiary occupation with less or no cost, but the nature of privations, the rearers have to undergo, as dictated by nature, customs and religion, coupled with the difficulties on restrictions in using forest areas and forest plants and also degeneracy of worms; have made the industry reduced. And the rearers are now more inclined to raise

only the yielding crops in Autumn, the seed crops and other catch crops being ignored, by the general rearers. The successful seed crop growers make no doubt a good profit by selling seed cocoons at 10 to 15 cocoons per rupee and sometimes at more costs.

REELING OR SPINNING

The quality and size of different varieties of cocoons as grown in different localities, and conditions, on different varieties of trees, vary. Such cocoons are sold on different trade and local names, such as Naryah, Mudhya, Dabha, Jadui, Bugul etc. The quality, lustre and other physical properties with regard to strength, elongation etc. also vary.

The cocoons are softened by a crude method with country ingredients, and are reeled in 3 or 4 filaments drawn together from 3 or 4 cocoons on to a simple Natwa worked by right hand, while the individual threads are given a physical twist to make them adhere together, on the left thigh of the reeler with left hand. The rendita of Tasar cocoons according to the quality and size of the cocoons vary from 50 to 120 Tolas per 100. Equal quantity of waste, besides the peduncles or stems of the cocoons which also contains silk content in stiff condition, is obtained. The waste of Tasar is disposed off at a very cheap cost of say -/2/- to -/4/- per lb. The peduncles are thrown away.

QUALITY

Unlike Mulberry cocoons, the Tasar cocoons possess a peduncle at the head to the mouth of the cocoons which support on the twigs of the trees. After the cocoons are softened, this gets loose and render unsuitable to reel in one continuous filament on sinking method in a Reeling pan. Attempts were however made sometimes to overcome this but no

successful effort of economic imports is on records. Tasar fibre are striated do not adhere together stickily. quality and other properties are not very satisfactory, and it is that the cocoons are made good use of by foreign machinery is spinning into suitable.

The one single filament gives a reel length of about 1500 ft. and is such that the titre of the filament is more at 10 to 15 deniers and gives a strength of minimum 1.6 to 2.5 gramme per denier and an Elongation of about 22 per cent. Some authorities, recorded in the past for some quality of the cocoons, give an Elongation of as much as 30 per cent. which is of course a matter of observation with precision for available cocoons of different qualities. The specific gravity of Tasar yarn is 1.250 while the mulberry gives 1.329. Better reeling process or methods to obtain uniform quality of silk, if possibly explored, we have therefore given one of the best impetus to the Tasar production to a state of whatever condition it still exists. In the past, attempts, no improvement in reeling was called for and the system prevalent in the Sambalpur districts in Orissa, seemed to serve the purpose very well for that time. Improvement in seeds, checking the degeneracy of worms, exchange of seeds and possible assistance to the Tasar growers by allotting suitable forests; were taken to be the main criterion. This project with ends in view as may be working in some of the Tasar growing province in Chaibassa in Bihar and one at Armori in C. P., might doubt help in surviving of the production of Tasar cocoons. But when the yield or economic production of anything ultimately interlaces with the remuneration the better quality of the material or strength would no doubt render its good share in yield. Having fair degree of composition

the qualities and physical properties of Tasar if economically used for such or better utility purposes, may have had a better intrinsic value. Silk is used in various purpose other than utility in clothing as luxury goods. The physical properties and chemical composition of silkmulberry silk are such that renders their use in manufacture of various articles of men's needs. Silk and silk components play an important part in the sinews of war for use in Parachutes, Cartridge bags, Indulators, Surgical articles, Ligature from guts, etc. and the body fluid of the worms are very rich in Carbon content. In Japan, five Carbons are produced from the wastes of Silkworms. Fine pupae oil is produced from the pupae inside the cocoons. The oil further refined by benzene process is used as sauce and for manufacture of soaps. Aminoglyceric acid is produced from sericine or gum tannin. Owing to the inherent common defects, it may of course go difficult to find more possible and easy ways of utility to derive immediate economic gain similar to Tasar or on wild worms before it passes through experimental or rather Laboratory stages. Owing to variations in the distribution of micellae in the structure of the Tasar filaments, it has been observed that suitable ligature nuts can not be obtained from the silk glands of the Tasar worms. Similarly corresponding defects present may discourage for use in other spheres also. But the purpose of wider utility in improving the quality of tasar yarn and manufacture of spunsilk from Tasar waste in the country, may not be visualised to be an effective attempt after they are perused with care. Silkworm-like fibres can be derived by treatment with detergents made from sulphated higher alcohols and a further treatment in aqueous Potassium Bi-

chromate and Aluminium chloride with a subsequent immersion in a solution of cow-hair, pig-bristles or feathers in hot strong alkali.

ATTEMPTS MADE AND POSSIBLE EFFORTS

Tastes and fashion have by now changed from lustre to quality. Fabrics from twisted tasar yarn still finds a good favour among the consumers. A rational attempt in mechanical shaping and spinning processes may however be helpful. The writer had the opportunity to come across a few samples of Tasar spun silk turned out in the Mysore Spun Silk Mills Ltd., from the wastes of Bilashpur district in C. P. Quality of the yarns seemed to be promising. If the wastes of Tasar which contain good amount of silk content be utilised on economic units, the considerable quantities of exportable Tasar wastes, which as illustrated in above (compiled from the D. G. C. I. Statistical Abstracts) accrues very little and nominal costs would no doubt yield a good return to the industry and implement the intrinsic side of the industry.

Evidently the relative yield thus casts a valuable bearing on the employment of the rearers in raising of their crops, irrespective of the natural conditions and quality of the cocoons produced in each season, which may vary in number and in weight, in relation of 128 (Bara-muga) to 600 (inferior) cocoonshells in a pound. Average quantity of Dabha variety of Behar weighs 250 to 300 shells in a pound. Naturally amount of waste in relation to labour which is more high in case of reeling or spinning from smaller cocoons, is also more. The utility in weaving and the economic production of yarn from the Tasar cocoons should, therefore, on the other hand, attach a great importance for successful efforts.

**FROM ANALOGY WITH THE SILKWORMS
OR MULBERRY VARIETY**

On an analogy with the silkworms of mulberry variety, the programmes suggested by Mr. N. G. Mukherjea, the then Assistant Director of Agriculture, during the year 1905, given in the following were worked in the past. This proved to be a failure, except to render an encouragement to the local rearers in continuing their work.

PROGRAMME:—(a) Establishment of Tasar rearing Nurseries, where rational methods of propagation of trees and reeling be taught and where ample quantities of bonafide wild and semi-domesticated seedcocoons will be distributed.

(b) The propagation of Asan or saj trees.

(c) Reservation of forest trees.

(d) Exchange of seeds.

As stated above, the Tasar stations working in Behar and in C.P., with the present sub-vention, though on the lines of the past attempts with experiences thereof, may successfully render some help to the industry. But attempts of utilising Tasar for better purposes or for better qualities, may further benefit the manu-

facturing interests, i.e. Tasar spinner and weavers concerned. This will extend its return to the interests even in the non-existent with relatively a better yield and outlay. Utilization of Tasar in spinning mills in India also will directly help in running of economic units of Spun Silk Mills.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am thankful to Mr. B. B. Roy, Officer-in-Charge (now Superintendent Bengal Silk Conditioning house for his encouragement in testing certain properties of Tasar and to Dr. Paranjpe, well known Physician and Surgeon of Maharashtra Nagpur for his courteous undertaking of preparation of ligature guts and experiments for their surgical use, when I was working in the Central Provinces. The Direct-twist process on Tasar has further been tried in the Bengal Silk Conditioning House, which seemed to fairly render a Laboratory success to the effort. Continuation of such efforts on tangible limit and a co-ordination with research at the Centre, might be of good value for this ignored industry and to those already working on the liberal lines in the industry.

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—The Cashew Nut: Its Utilisation

IN most parts of the tropics the cashew is esteemed as a dessert nut and in recent years it has become much better known in the European countries and U.S.A. This nut is indigenous in Brazil, but is now widely distributed and naturalized throughout the warmer parts of the globe. In the coastal areas of South-West India the tree is planted by the Portuguese in the 16th century from where the commercial supplies of the nut are mainly derived at the present time.

The tree yielding the cashew nut may reach a height of 40 feet, but is often considerably smaller, especially when exposed to strong winds, as is the case near the sea, when not infrequently it adopts a low-spreading habit with a gnarled or twisted trunk. It will grow under a wide range of climatic and soil conditions, often succeeding where few other trees or crops will grow, for instance in poor sandy soil or where rainfall is meagre. However, it is at a low elevations in the tropics, not far distant from the sea, where it thrives best and gives the greatest yield of nuts. On account of its ability to grow under adverse conditions it has been used in planting up waste areas and for checking erosion.

In planting cashew trees it is usual to sow the seeds *in situ* at distances of 30 to 40 feet apart. Germination takes place in 8 to 10 days and under favourable conditions growth is rapid, young trees sometimes flowering after 18 months. Young trees may first be raised in nurseries, but they do not always transplant easily owing to the presence of a long tap-root. However, this method is to be preferred when the cotyledons or succulent primary leaves of the seedlings are liable to be eaten in the field by rats or even small herd-boys.

Usually 5 to 6 years elapse before economic returns can be expected. A fair average yearly yield of nuts from a mature tree is reckoned to be about 20 pounds, approximately 30 per cent of which would be kernels, although well-grown vigorous trees may yield 100 pounds or more. Nuts ripen two months from flowering and are usually left to fall from the trees before being gathered. Although a tree may flower freely, profuse shedding of its flowers may take place and only a few nuts mature. This is often the case in cloudy weather, although it is believed it may be a vertical characteristic to some extent.

The cashew tree is evergreen with rather tough leathery leaves, and flowers borne in clusters at the end of its branches. These develop into handsome, gaily-coloured fruits consisting of a pear-shaped, swollen basal portion (or pedicel) which is succulent and juicy and bright yellow or orange in colour. It is edible and commonly known as the "cashew apple", owing perhaps to its superficial resemblance to a somewhat overripe apple. Attached to the end of the "apple" is the cashew nut itself; olive in colour and resembling a large kidney bean. In the centre of it is the kernel.

The shell of the nut is not unduly hard or woody, but contains an acrid juice that acts as a powerful vesicant and burns the skin in much the same way as strong carbolic acid. To the unwise attempting to bite open the nut with their teeth severe blistering of the lip is likely to result. The irritant oil or juice may be expelled by heat by hand without risk of severe injury. Roasting also improves the flavour of the kernel and for these reasons

the nuts are always roasted before the kernels are extracted.

Various methods of roasting the nuts are employed in different countries. Whichever method is used great care has to be exercised to prevent over-roasting which results in a charred or discoloured, inferior kernel. One method is to place the nuts in hot sand. A common method practised by peasants in India is to place the nuts, about 6 pounds at a time, in a pan over a fire for a few minutes, stirring all the time to prevent charring. After roasting the nuts are sprinkled with wood ashes so that the pungent oil adhering to them does not harm the hands when they are cracked. Sometimes open earthenware pots are used, perforated to allow the shell oil to escape. In the factories that have been established in India, large-scale methods of roasting have been adopted. This is done by feeding the nuts into perforated rotary drums which are inclined over fires fuelled with the cashew shells. When the nuts come out at the other end of the drum roasting is complete. Soaking the nuts in water overnight is found to reduce the likelihood of charring with this method. The oily smoke and acrid smell of the burning shells have an unpleasant effect on the nose and eyes of unseasoned visitors. As the fumes are so acrid, factories are often situated well away from residential areas.

The extraction of the kernels from the roasted nuts is done by hand, for no machine has yet been devised that will perform this operation in a satisfactory manner without a good deal of breakage of the kernels. In the factories in India this work is performed for the most part by women and girls who squat on the ground, each with a wooden baton and a flat stone embedded in the ground in front of her. Cracking the nuts is a task that demands great skill. Speed is an import-

ant consideration and it is very easy to break the kernel if too much force is used. Sometimes a piece of hooked wire is used to help extract the kernel. The thin light brown or yellow skin which covers the kernels is easily removed by hand after the kernels have been placed for a few hours in drying-chambers. This drying makes the kernels very brittle and easily removed by hand after the kernels have been placed for a few hours in drying channeleers. This drying makes the kernels very brittle and easily broken. They are therefore spread out to absorb a certain amount of moisture or placed in "sweating-chambers" before being graded according to size and finally packed for export. They are usually packed in 2 5-pound tins from which the air is extracted before being hermetically sealed. This method of packing prevents rancidity or insect attack and kernels packed in this way have been found to show no deterioration, even after twelve months.

In grading, which is also done by female labour, the usual grades for kernels are: (1) "wholes," (2) "halves," (3) "brokens," and (4) "rejects or spoils" (including charred kernels). Only the first two of these grades are usually exported and "whole" kernel fetch much higher prices than "halves." Broken kernels are frequently utilized locally, and the rejects and "skins" which contain fragments of kernel for feeding poultry.

There are differences in the quality and the size of kernels from different areas. Good kernels are pure white plump, not twisted, fairly hard and with a fair degree of sweetness. From some districts the kernels may be small or too hard and fibrous to be rated as first quality.

The kidney-shaped kernels are generally consumed as "salted nuts" or substituted for almonds with which they compare very favourably. Uses have also been found for them in the manufacture of confectionery and sweetmeats of various kinds. The kernels have a pleasant, bland taste, and are slightly sweet. Some people use them in their own special dishes in a variety of ways in curries or stews, eaten with jaggery (palm gur) and coconut, or mixed with bean flour and fried in oil. Sometimes they are fried in coconut oil before eating.

In addition to the cashew nut the tree provides a number of useful products for the inhabitants of the countries where it occurs. The wood is useful for fuel and for charcoal, but is usually of unsuitable dimensions for other purposes. The acrid shell oil owes its blistering action to the presence of cardole and has various medicinal uses, especially in India. In European medicine it has also been used in preparations for removing warts and corns. Other uses are for treating fishing-nets and woodwork to prevent attack by termites or "white ants". In controlling mosquito larvae it has been found that this oil added to paraffin greatly increases the toxicity of the film. In recent years it has been used in the manufacture of plastics, and for certain sorts of paint such as are

used for ships' keels, for cement surface or where corrosive influences preclude the use of ordinary paint.

The cashew "apple" or succulent base part of the fruit may be eaten out of hand but is rather tart or astringent as a rule and somewhat fibrous or stringy. The juice extracted from it provides a refreshing drink or it may be fermented and wine resembling Madeira prepared from it, also spirit. It is extensively used "cajuda" made from it is a popular beverage. In fact the Brazilians are said to be the only people who fully appreciate the cashew. They have varietal names for those trees that produce the largest and finest fruits and utilize the "apple" perhaps more than the nut itself. It is a common sight in parts of Brazil to see huge heaps of the "apples" piled up at the markets when they are in season. Vinegar has also been made from the juice. In Goa spirit is regularly distilled under Government control, from the fermented juice of these fruits. Distillation is also carried out in Portuguese East Africa, where at one time natives in certain areas became so partial to it that it was said of them: "During the cashew season they give themselves up to the favourite beverage and become perfectly useless".

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—Canning and Preserving with Honey.

HONEY may be used in place of all or a part of the sugar used in canning, jelly making, preserving, and pickling. The milder flavoured honeys are probably most compatible with the less tart fruits for making sauces and jellies. The stronger flavoured honeys, particularly those with a spicy flavour, are excellent for pickling purposes and conserves made from tart fruits like gooseberries and rhubarb.

It is somewhat difficult to designate special honeys for special fruits as taste preferences vary. A home maker can best determine her family's preference by experimenting some. All honeys are good but not all flavours of honey are equally as pleasing to all individuals.

An all-honey syrup is naturally darker than a sugar syrup. Such a syrup tends to darken the lighter coloured fruits as peaches and pears when canned for sauce. However, the original fruit flavour is intensified. If one prefers a lesser degree of the original flavour of the fruit, it is better to replace only from one-fourth to one-half of the sugar ordinarily used with the honey.

In using honey, two precaution should be obtained:—

1. Since honey has a tendency to foam considerably when heated, there is some danger of the product "cooking over" at the beginning of the cooking period if a large enough preserving kettle is not used or the syrup carefully watched.

2. Since honey is part water, it is necessary to cook the product in which it is used slightly longer in order to obtain the desired consistency.

HONEY IN SAUCES

For the syrup—Bring water to boiling point. Add the honey and stir. Again let come to a good rolling boil. Remove all scum.

Canning by Cold Pack Method—Pour the boiling syrup over the fruit which has been packed in sterilized jars. Process according to standard schedule canning by hot pack method. Add fruit to boiling syrup. Allow to come to a good rolling boil. Fill sterilized jars. Process according to standard schedule. The following proportions of honey or honey and sugar to fruit for the various sauces are appended below:—

Fruit	All Honey	Syrup. Honey and Sugar
Cherries (tart)	2 cups honey	1 cup honey
Plums (tart)	3½ cups water	1 cup sugar
Apples (tart)		4 cup water
Strawberries		
Pineapples	1 cup honey	½ cup honey
Raspberries	2 cups water	½ cup sugar
Peaches	•	2½ cups water
Sweet black cherries		

Be sure to remove all scum from the syrup before pouring over the fruit in jars or adding the fruit if the hot pack method is used.

JAMS AND JELLIES

Crab-apple, apple, plum, quince, and currant jellies can be successfully made by using $\frac{1}{2}$ cup honey to 1 cup of juice or half honey and half sugar may be used.

ALL-HONEY—Boil jellies 10 minutes. Add honey and cook to 220°F. Remove scum. Pour in hot sterilized glasses. Cover with paraffin.

HONEY AND SUGAR—Boil in Juice 10 minutes. Add sugar and bring to boiling point. Add honey and cook to 200°F. Remove scum. Pour in hot glasses and cover with paraffin.

HONEY JELLY

2½ cups honey, $\frac{1}{2}$ bottle liquid fruit pectin. Mix honey and water in preserving kettle. Bring to full boil as quickly as possible. Add liquid pectin stirring constantly. Bring to full rolling boil. Remove from fire at once and skim. Quickly pour into hot glasses. Cover with paraffin.

STRAWBERRY JELLY

1½ quarts fully ripe berries, 4 cups honey, 3 cups juice, $\frac{1}{2}$ bottle liquid pectin. Crush the ripe berries. Squeeze out juice. Drip through cotton flannel for sparkling product. Measure 4 cups honey and 3 cups juice in preserving kettle. Stir, bring to boil. Add the pectin, stirring constantly. Bring again to full rolling boil and allow to boil for 20 seconds. Remove from fire, let stand 1 minute, skim. Pour quickly into hot glasses. Cover at once with paraffin.

CHERRY JELLY

2 quarts of juice, 1 quart of honey. Crush cherries. Cook slowly without water till tender. Drip through cotton flannel. Measure 1 quart of honey to 2 quarts of juice. Boil until it double drops

from the spoon. Remove scum, pour into hot glasses. Cover with paraffin.

PEACH JAM

3 pounds peaches, 2 cups honey, teaspoon allspices, 1½ teaspoons whole cloves, 3 teaspoons broken stick cinnamon, 3 tablespoonfuls of lemon juice, cup peach juice. Put spices in cheesecloth sack. Cook slowly all ingredients until desired consistency. Remove bag and spices. Place in sterilized jars and paraffin.

PRESERVES

The following are the principal preserves prepared with honey:—

SUNSHINE PRESERVES

Allow 1 pound of honey for every pound of fresh fruit. Mix and spread on platters. Place platters in box slightly higher at back than front. Cover with glass. Place in sunshine on a bench. When preserves are thick, put in sterilized jars and seal.

APPLE BUTTER

2 quarts cooking apples, $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon ground cinnamon; pinch allspice, 1 pin honey (1½ lbs. or 2 cups), 1 tablespoonful lemon juice, 1 pint vinegar. Cook slowly several hours. Stir frequently to prevent sticking and scorching. When thick, can in sterilized jars. Paraffin and seal.

GINGER PEARS

Wash, pare, core and cut into very thin slices hard under ripe pears. Allow 4 pounds honey to 4 pounds pear slices. Add $\frac{1}{2}$ cup water. 1 ounce ginger cut into small pieces, 2 lemons using the rind (Cut in very thin strips.) Simmer all ingredients very slowly. When thick as marmalade seal in hot sterilized jars.

PINEAPPLE WATER MELON PRESERVES

1 pound honey, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup water, 1 teaspoon salt, juice of 1 lemon, rind of $\frac{1}{2}$ lemon, $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon ginger, 1 pound water

lemon rind cut into small cubes. Simmer gently for 3 hours. Add 1 cup crushed pineapple. Cook 1 hour longer. Seal in sterilized jars.

ORANGE MARMALADE

3 medium size oranges, 2 cups honey (2 cups honey makes a heavy sweet marmalade—1½ cups honey not quite so sweet), 1 cup water, 6 tablespoons lemon juice, ¼ cup liquid fruit pectin. Run oranges through food chopper. Measure and you should have from 1½ to scant 2 cups ground orange (skin, pulp, and all). Add water, simmer 15 minutes after it has come to good boil. Add honey, bring to a boil, then simmer 30 minutes. Add lemon juice. Add liquid pectin. Bring to full rolling boil and allow to boil 30 seconds. Remove from fire, skin by turns for about 5 minutes. This slight cooling should prevent floating fruit. Pour quickly in sterilized glasses. Paraffin at once.

PICKLES

Apple, peach and pear pickles are prepared thus:—3 cups honey, 3 cups vinegar, 2 cups water and 1 teaspoon salt. Bring these ingredients to a boil. Add fruit and cook till tender. Pack in sterilized jars and seal. For apples tie the spices in cheesecloth sack and boil in pickling syrup. For pears and peaches stick the whole cloves in the fruit and allow stick cinnamon to cook in the pickling syrup. Spices referred above consist of cloves and cinnamon. 2 to 3 whole cloves to each pear or peach, depending upon size of the fruit.

CHUTNEY SAUCE

2 onions, 1 green pepper, ½ cut hot red pepper, 3 green tomatoes, 2 tart apples, 1 cup raisins, 3 cups crushed pineapple, ½ cup vinegar, ½ teaspoon ginger, 2 tablespoons salt, 2 tablespoons mustard powder, pinch of red pepper, 1 cup honey, juice of 1 lemon. Run through food

chopper the first six ingredients. Add the other ingredients and simmer slowly for 2½ hours. Pack in jars and seal.

CUCUMBER PICKLES

2 quarts cucumber, ½ teaspoon cayenne, ½ teaspoon allspice, 2 cups honey, 1 teaspoon celery seed. Mix spices, sugar and honey. Let come to a boil. Pour over cucumbers and seal.

CAULIFLOWER PICKLES

Remove outside leaves and stalks, wash cauliflower thoroughly. Break into small flowerets. Cook in boiling salt water for 12 minutes. Rinse in cold water. Pack pieces in hot sterilized jars. Fill jars with honey spiced vinegar prepared as follows:—1 quart vinegar, ½ cup honey, 1 stick cinnamon, 1 teaspoon celery seed, 2 small onions sliced, 1 spoon whole cloves, 1 teaspoon allspice. Boil this mixture 15 to 20 minutes. Strain and it is ready for pouring over cauliflower. Seal so while hot.

HONEY VINEGAR

There are various recipes for vinegar making but the following two have been found to be good.

I

2 lbs. of honey, 1 gallon of water. Dilute honey with part of the water, then heat to 200°F. Scald the barrel or crock in which vinegar is to be made. Pour in diluted honey and add the remaining water. Add a fruit juice to speed fermentation. Cover with a cloth or woven cloth to keep out dirt and prevent entrance of undesirable yeast or bacteria. From 6 to 12 months are required for proper ripening. Use the purest water available to avoid contamination. If distilled water is used, boil.

II

1 quart of honey, 8 quarts water, 1 cup vinegar. Allow mixture to stand in warm places until fermentation ceases. Seal in clean jars.

-PLYWOOD: A GROWING INDUSTRY.

By S. K. CHOUDHURI.,

PLYWOOD is an industry born of the modern demand for the maximum of beauty, utility and strength. It is difficult to give a comprehensive list of all the uses to which Plywood is put. In one word, it covers almost every phase of modern life.

Modern interior decorations of large high veneer surfaces employing beautiful and valuable timber has been made possible only by the application of construction. The modern furniture with its elegance, strength and efficiency owes to a large extent to the use of Plywood or laminated panels. Plywood has been mainly used whenever lightness, and strength of construction are required.

The use of plywood and laminated boards has become so extensive that they are practically used in aircrafts, ship-building, prefabricated houses, interior constructions, such as walls, ceilings, doors, etc. and from day to day the uses to which it is being put is increasing.

The recent research that has been going on in various parts of the world with adhesives for bounding plywood have been so great that to-day it is possible to manufacture plywood not only for interior uses but also for exterior purposes like building of aeroplanes, prefabricated houses, exterior doors, etc., in unlimited quantities. This has been possible due to the modern synthetic resin adhesives that are water-proof, boilproof, and fungus-proof. The uses of plywood in decorative innovations are mural panels in the form of pictures made entirely from inlays of veneers cut from different varieties of timber.

Though plywood as it is known today a recent product there are evidences of

the existence of 'veneering' dating back from 1500 B.C. The term "veneer" denoting a thin sheet of layer cut from wood, has also been traced to ancient Rome and Greece. In its simplest form, Plywood consists of three layers of thin wood firmly glued together with the grain directions of the middle layer at right angles to that of the two parallel outer layers. Laminated Board can be said as a recent development of plywood. In principle it is based on the same idea. Like plywood it is built up of layers of thin wood glued together. The essential difference is that thicker layers are used for cores for laminated boards than for plywood. It is now being more and widely realised that furniture or other panels constructed from plywood or laminated board are actually superior to similar articles made of solid timber.

In India the main outlet for the plywood industry is demand for tea chests. The quality of the Indian-made plywood is, therefore, judged by the suitability for the manufacture of tea chests. The essential requirements of the tea chests are:—

(a) The wood must not impart any taint to the tea, (b) it must be free from termite and borer infection, (c) the plywood must be strong and at the same time not heavy, and (d) it must be properly dried and glued with an approved cement in order to withstand deterioration in a tropical climate. According to the Indian Tariff Board Report (1947), the tea gardens complained very bitterly about the poor quality of the Indian tea chests, and also during the war period complaints were received from the Food Ministry in England that tea packed in Indian-made tea chests suffered considerable damage

and wastage on account of the defective quality of the tea chests. "When this complaint was investigated by the Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun, it was found to be substantially correct. Two of the well-established factories have no doubt produced acceptable qualities while the majority of the factories have not satisfied the consumers on the point of quality. There is every reason to hope that the Indian factories can produce an acceptable quality if proper specifications are prescribed and the obligations are imposed upon the manufacturers to conform to those specifications," adds the report.

With the development of the export trade in tea, India had to import in the past on a large scale, plywood from Europe for the purpose of making tea chests. Until the outbreak of World War I, India had to depend entirely on foreign imports of plywood for making chests. The difficulties in the supply position caused by the cessation of imports of plywood during the World War I encouraged some enterprising firms to start a few factories for manufacturing plywood in the country. In 1917, at the request of Indian Munitions Board the Surma Valley Saw Mills undertook the manufacture of plywood, and in 1918 the Assam Saw Mills and Timber Co., was floated. This company got a 30-year lease for extracting timber from the north-east frontier tracts. The real pioneers in the establishment of the plywood industry in India are the Assam Saw Mills and Timber Co., and the Assam Railways & Trading Co. Both these factories are located in Assam where suitable timber for tea chests is easily accessible. Assam being the largest producer of tea in India, these factories have also the advantages of the neighbouring markets for the tea chests. These factories started production between 1920, and 1924. The indigenous

industry had, however, to face serious competition from foreign manufacturers and had to apply to Government for protection. There was a tariff inquiry in 1927 but the recommendations of the Tariff Board for the protection of the industry were not accepted by the Government. The revenue duty was raised in 1931 from 8 per cent to 10 per cent. On account of the keen foreign competition the industry had to face difficult times during the period 1930-39 and could not make much headway. In 1938 there were only three factories in existence, two of which were in Assam and the third Kallai in South India. Just before the commencement of the second World War four or five new factories came into existence, the most important amongst them being the Plywood Products, Sitapur. The great expansion in the industry, however, took place during the World War II when the number of factories, big or small, rose to about 80.

Accepting most of the recommendations of the Indian Tariff Board last year in regard to the continuance of Protection to the plywood and Tea-chest Industry the Government have accorded the Industry continuance of the protection for five years.

It is no doubt a happy sign; but much more has got to be done. The recommendations requesting the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, to carry on research for new adhesives should also be given a top-priority, so that the industry is not compelled to depend on casein alone for its glueing purposes.

The recommendation of the India Tariff Board (1950) for the setting up of regional testing laboratories in Calcutta, Assam, the Southern India, was most welcome to the industry and attempt must be made to collect funds for the purpose both by the Government as well as by

those engaged in the manufacture of plywood in this country. The recommendations of the Tariff Board if properly implemented. Government would have no option left to allow the present recommen-

dations to be side-tracked by interested parties and this essential industry will be in a position to prosper in no time and India will soon be made self-sufficient in her requirements of tea-chests.

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—TEST FOR MINERAL OILS.

WITH a view to detect the presence of mineral oil in vegetable oils attempts have been made to study a method which might prove handy for detecting the presence of the adulterant in the commonly equipped school laboratories and hospitals. The Director of Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi has suggested the following test, which would enable mineral oil to be detected upto even 1% in vegetable oils:—

HOLDE'S RAPID TEST FOR MINERAL OILS

Dissolve a piece of sodium hydroxide, the size of a pea in a large test tube of 100 C.C. Erlenmyer flask in a few drops of water and add 15 c.c. of absolute alcohol. To this solution add ten drops of the sample to be tested and boil vigorously for two minutes being certain that no unreacted oil remains on the sides of the tube or flask. Then add 50 C.C. of hot distilled water, a slight turbidity indicates the presence of mineral oil.

This test may slightly be modified to make it more handy. Instead of the large test tube of 100 C.C. Erlenmyer flask, a test tube ($6 \times \frac{3}{4}$ ") may be employed and 5 drops of the sample 7 C.C. of absolute alcohol and 20-25 C.C. of hot distilled water may be used in place of 10 drops of the sample, 15 c.c. absolute alcohol and 50 c.c. of hot distilled water. The test tube should be of heat resistant glass, the heating should be done with an air condenser. The absolute alcohol should be pure and give no turbidity with distilled water.

A fair idea of the degree of adulteration with mineral oil can be obtained by determining the saponification value against a control sample of pure vegetable oil from the same source.

The following method may be adopted for the determination of saponification value:—

REAGENTS

(a) Hydrochloric Acid...0.5 N.

(b) Alcoholic potassium hydroxide solution:—

Dissolve 40 gm. of the purest KOH in 1 litre of 95% alcohol which has been previously redistilled from KOH over which it has been standing for some time

DETERMINATION

Weigh accurately about 2 gm. of the filtered sample into a 150 C.C. flask pipette 25 c.c. of the alcoholic KOH solution into the flask allowing the pipette to drain for a definite time. Connect the flask with an air condenser and heat on the water bath until the fat or oil is completely saponified (about one hour) cool and titrate with the 0.5 HCL, using phenolphthalein indicator. Conduct a blank determination along with that on the sample using the same pipette for measuring the KOH solution and draining for the same length of time subtract the number of C.C. of 0.5 N. HCL obtained in the determination on the sample from the number obtained on the blank to obtain the C.C. of 0.5 of 0.5 N. HCL equivalent to the KOH used in the saponification of the sample taken. Calculate and report as saponification value or number (mg of KOH required to saponify 1 gm. of fat or oil.)

The saponification value of common edible oils and fat used for edible purpose is given below:—

	S.V.
Mustard Oil	169-175
Groundnut Oil	188-196
Coconut Oil	246-260
Sesame Oil	189-193
• Cotton seed Oil	193-195
Ghee	220-235

—PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPES

BORIC OINTMENT

Hard Paraffin	27	grams.
Soft Paraffin	70	"
White Beeswax	3	"
Boric Acid Powder	10	"

Melt the first three together over water bath and add the boric acid. Stir and then remove from the source of heat but continue stirring until cold.

COLD AND INFLUENZA MIXTURES

Ammoniated tincture of quinine	1	fl.dr.
Solution of ammonium acetate	1	" "
Compound tincture of cardamoms	$\frac{1}{2}$	" "
Glycerine	$\frac{1}{2}$	" "
Chloroform water to make	1	fl.oz.
Mix.		

ASOKARIST

Bark of Saraca India (Asokatwak. 16 srs.
Boil in 256 seers of water, down to 64 seers
Strain and add to the decoction.

Treacle (Guda)	200	palams.
Flowers of woodfordia		
looribunda (Dhataki)	16	"
Nigella sativa (Krishnajiraka)	1	palam.
Cyperus rotundus (Mustaka)	1	"
Dry ginger (Sunth)	1	"
Beberis Asiatica (Darvo)	1	"
Roots of Nymphaea Stellata		
(Utpala Red Flower)	1	"
Chebulic myrobalans		
(Haritaki)	1	"
Emblic myrobalans (Amlaki)	1	"
Beleric myrobalans		
(Vibhitaka)	1	"
Kernel of mango seeds		
(Anrabija)	1	"
Cumin seeds (Jiraka)	1	"
Root bark of Justicia adhatoda		
(Vasalka)	1	"
Red sandalwood (Rakta Chandana)	1	"

ELIXIR PAPAIN AND DIASTASE

Papain	15	grm.
Diastase	15	"
Solution amaranth	3	c. c.
Compound spirit of orange	3	"
Alcohol	180	"
Glycerin	300	"
Purified talc	15	grm.
Distilled water to produce	1000	c. c.

Mix the compound spirit of orange with the alcohol, add the glycerine, talc, and 400 c.c. water. Use the mixture to make a paste with the papain and diastase, and allow it to macerate for 24 hours or more. Filter and add sufficient water to bring the volume well up to 1000 c.c. Add the solution of amaranth.

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PIMPLE LOTION

Crystallised alum	1	lb.
Sodium chloride	1	"
Sublimed sulphur	1	"
Sugar candy	2	lbs.
Spermaceti	1	lb.
Rose water	3	lbs.
Distilled water	3	"
Alcohol	10	"

Reduce all the solids into fine powder and rub up with the mixed liquids. This lotion is to be applied at intervals during the day upon linen rags, which should frequently be changed. It is an effectual and quick remedy for eruptions on the face.

THOAT PAINT

Glycerin	85	parts.
Tannic acid	15	"
Mix and dissolve.		

ANTACID TABLETS

Calcium carbonate	350	gr.
Heavy magnesium carbonate	250	"
Sodium chloride	100	"
Simple Basis,		
as mentioned below		q.s.
Mix, and make into 100 tablets.		
To prepare simple basis take		
Sucrose, finely powdered	3 oz.	231 gr.
Acacia, finely powdered	108	"
Distilled water		q.s.

Mix to form into a paste with distilled water suitable for making tablets as mentioned above.

INHALANT

Pine oil	1	dr.
Eucalyptus oil	$\frac{1}{2}$	"
Menthol	30	gr.
Alcohol isopropyl	1	oz.

Directions: 2 or 3 drops on a handkerchief and the vapour inhaled.

AQUA ANETHI

Anethi oil	100	mins.
Distilled water	6	oz.
Spirit rectified to make	18	"

Dissolve the oil in 10 oz. of the spirit, add hot water. Shake well and set aside for a day or two. Decant and filter through 2 dr. of kaolin; then make up with spirit to 18 oz.

TINCTURE CANTHARIDIN (B.P.)

Alcohol (90 p.c.) sufficient		
Cantharidin	0.1	gram.
Chloroform	10.1	millilitres.
to produce	1000	"

Dissolve the cantharidin in the chloroform, and add sufficient of the alcohol to produce the required volume.

—Recipes for Small Manufacturers

WHITE SHOE DRESSING

Titanium dioxide	20 parts.
Stearic acid	$\frac{1}{2}$ part.
Trisodium phosphate	1 "
Casein	5 parts.
Water	75 "

Dissolve the trisodium phosphate and the casein in the water. Heat, and add the stearic acid, which has been heated to the melting point. Agitate until saponification is complete. Allow to cool, and add the titanium dioxide.

CHOCOLATE PEANUT BARS

Sugar	3 lbs.
Liquid glucose	3 "
Water	1 pint.

Dissolve the sugar in hot water and mix the liquid glucose. Now cook to 240°F, then add 3 lbs of roasted peanuts, and cook for 10 minutes. Remove from fire, and roll out on slab. Cut into small pieces, and then dip in chocolate.

TRANSPARENT LABEL VARNISH

Copal	4 oz.
Ether	5 fl. oz.
Acetone	5 " "
Alcohol 95 c.c.	5 " "
Mix	

SHAMPOO POWDER

Sodium resci carbonatc, a compound intermediate in character between sodium carbonate and sodium bicarbonate, is the alkali par excellence for incorporation in shampoo powders. It may be used in quite large proportions. 40 per cent of soaps, 50 per cent of sodium resci carbonate, and 10 per cent of borax form a good combination.

CRYSTALLISED COCONUT CHIPS

Prepare the coconuts by passing off the brown skin. Cut them in thin slices and pack them in a crystallising tin. Now make simple syrup enough to cover them. Pour this syrup over them while hot and stand aside for 2 hours. Then drain off the superfluous syrup by removing the stopper from the tin. Spread the chips on trays and put them in the drying room for 2 or 3 days turning them over at intervals. When dry, put them again into the tin; add a like quantity of syrup as before and let it stand till nearly cold, then pour it over the chips and let them remain undisturbed for another 12 hours; then strain again and spread them on trays, when dry, they are ready for sale. This, of course, will be white. To make the red chips, simply colour the syrup which is used for crystallising.

NAIL ENAMEL REMOVER

The remover is a simply formulated article, consisting solely of a mixture of good nitrocellulose solvents.

Amyl acetate	20 parts.
Acetone	60 "
Ethyl acetate	20 "

This may be performed if desired.

EXPANDING ALLOY

Lead	9 parts.
Antimony	2 "
Bismuth	1 part.

Melt the lead in a crucible and then incorporate the bismuth and antimony. Use just enough heat to melt the lead. This alloy is good for taking impressions from dies, castings, and filling holes in metals.

PRINTING INK FOR CELLULOID AND CELLOPHANE

Some difficulty is experienced in printing on celluloid. In Germany the inks are made by triturating pigments with linseed oil varnish, copal lacquers and cellulose solvents. But best results are obtained by printing on a dull surface and polishing afterwards.

It is not good practice to use ordinary inks, hence special inks are prepared. They are mixed with acetone, camphor, amyl acetate, etc depending on the cost of the ink or hardness of the celluloid.

In multi-colour work it is necessary to allow the first colour printed to dry-out before the second is applied. It is advisable to rub the celluloid sheets with alcohol or benzine before the second colour is printed.

When printing cellophane, inks used are being prepared by grinding with 10 per cent copal varnish and a drier.

The following formulas will produce good inks, when ground with suitable pigment:—

Gum sandarac	30 parts.
Gum Mastic	10 "
Camphor	1 part.
Ethyl alcohol	500 parts.
Pigment—sufficient to produce paste.	

Another solution is 1 kilogram gum sandarac, 1 kilogram camphor and 250 grams venetian turps in 5 kilograms of ethyl alcohol. This is also used as a varnish for printed matter.

The copal lacquers which are required for transparent foil are made thus:—

6 kilograms melted copal, 14 kilograms linseed oil varnish, 8 kilograms of oil of turpentine, 4 kilograms cobalt driers and 1 kilogram boiled linseed oil. The proportion for adding printing ink is 15 per cent.

—IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

SUGAR WITHOUT MOLASSES

A recent patent taken in America describes a process for the manufacture of white sugar from sugarcane, sugar beets and citrus fruits without the formation of molasses (Sci. News, 1950, 58, 279). The product is claimed to have superior sweetening and improved nutritional properties. The process involves the treatment of sugar-bearing fluids and juices by solvent and ionexchange methods which remove salts and excess of undesirable gums, gums, dextrans and proteins present in the fluids. The aqueous sugar solution after adsorption with activated charcoal or bone charcoal is concentrated into crystalline or powdered or liquid sugar.

NEW BLOOD PLASMA

A new substitute for blood plasma, differing from one derived from okra recently reported at the Marquette University at Milwaukee is announced by the General Aniline and Film Corporation. Called PVP (for poly-vinyl-pyrrolidone), the new plasma substitute is a synthetic chemical compound from certain protein substances and acetylene gas. It is said to have unusual properties when combined with certain ones, as for example, with iodine, which is not active when combined with PVP and can be taken orally and even be injected into the bloodstream. PVP can also be used in combination with drugs like penicillin. Such use enables the drugs to be retained in the human system longer than when used alone. It is also said to accomplish many of the effects of real plasma.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

NEW RAW MATERIAL FOR SYNTHETIC RUBBER

It is reported that a large volume waste product of the paper industry is a potential raw material which may replace or supplement styrene in the manufacture of GR-S synthetic rubber. The compound is para-alpha-dimethyl styrene (PADMS), produced as a by-product in sulphite pulping of the spruce wood, and a potential supply is ample. It has been estimated that the U. S. A. and Canada will produce at least 1.3 million gallon a year. Synthetic rubber made from PADMS has proved superior in tensile strength and more like natural rubber in processing characteristic than rubber made with styrene.

—INDIAN RUBBER BULLETIN.

LARGE ALDEHYDE RESIN FINISHING COMPOSITION

A new patent has been taken out by Holtzen's Chemische Fabrick (B. P. 634, 368). The patent claims for the development of a process for making dry starch preparations that dissolve in cold water but become insoluble

when a solution is dried on a substrate. They are used as textile finishes or adhesives (e.g. in veneering wood). Cold-swelling starch (modified by partial oxidation or hydrolysis) is blended with an aldehyde and a substance other than an aminotriazine that can reach with it to form a resin. Thus the modified starch may be mixed with methyl urea and acetic acid, or ordinary starch may be mixed with urea, then modified by heating, and subsequently mixed with paraform aldehyde and ammonium chloride.

—JOURNAL OF THE TEXTILE INSTITUTE.

MEASURING SMALL TEMPERATURE CHANGES

A method of measuring small temperature changes in the range 0°-100°C has been developed, which has the advantage of sensitivity and simplicity. The detecting element is a toluene-mercury regulator modified so that the movement of the mercury in the capillary causes a change in the electrical capacitance between it and surrounding packet. The capacitance is connected in parallel with a capacitor in the input circuit of an oscillator working at about 250 Kc/S.

A separate heating oscillator of about the same frequency is used to develop a heat note which is applied to an audio-frequency meter. Both oscillators have a range of adjustment of about 50 Kc/S to enable the sensitivity, etc. of the instrument to be varied, and by building them closely together (though screened electrically) temperature errors will be negligible since drift due to changes in ambient temperature will affect both oscillators simultaneously. Another practical point is to ignore the lower part of the output meter scale (approximately the first fifth), because when the two oscillators frequencies are almost identical they lock together.

Temperature changes of 0.001° can be recorded as changes of 0.2 m A on a 0-1 m A milliammeter, which has an almost linear temperature variation scale.

—INDIAN AND EASTERN ENGINEER.

THIOMICID—NEW DRUG FOR TUBERCULOSIS

The synthesis of Thiomicid, p-acetyl amino-benzaldehyde thio-cemicarbazone, and anti-tubercular drug, is reported. A dilute solution of the drug—1: 50,000—has a bacteriostatic effect more marked than that of streptomycin. No tubercle bacilli were found in the spleen after the administration of 100 mg. of thiomicid. The treatment has been extended to tracheal and bronchial tuberculosis, tubercular infection of the kidneys, bones and joints and the skin, and fistula of the lymphatic glands. Thiomicid can be administered for several months without adverse after-effects (Chem. Age, 1950, 63, 653).

—FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

TEMPERING IRON & STEEL

3295 T.M., Patal—Desires to know a process of tempering iron and steel and manufacturing erasing rubber.

There are many methods of tempering steel; of these the following are more or less successfully carried out:—

One method of hardening and tempering steel is to heat in a flue of some kind maintained at the required temperature over the fire, and cool in water or a quenching or cooling liquid, and then to provide a tempering bath composed of some substances that will heat, in the open air to a temperature of about 150°F. Another method of tempering, which if capable of reduction to uniformity, would be the quickest and hence most desirable of any, is to heat the steel to a definite temperature, and cool or quench it in a liquid having sufficient greasiness or other quality which acts to retard its retraction of the heat from the steel, and thus give a temper at one operation. As an example of this kind of tempering it may be mentioned that milk and water, mixed in proportions determined by experiment upon the steel for which it was employed, has been found to give an excellent temper. A great deal, however, in this case depends upon the judgment of the operator, because very little variation in heating the steel or in the proportions of milk to water produces a wide variation in the degree of temper. If, on trial, the temper is too soft, the steel may be made hotter, or there may be more water added to the milk. If the steel was heated as hot as practicable without increasing the danger of burning it, more water must be added while if the steel was made red-hot without being hot enough to cause the formation of clearly perceptible scale, the steel may be heated more

ERASING RUBBER

Some erasing rubbers are made from vulcanised rubber compound. Distinction is made between erasers for pencil marks and erasers for ink marks. In the former case the eraser should not damage the surface of the paper and the compound should have quite different properties from an ink eraser which can only function by removing the layer of the paper through which the ink has penetrated. Whilst in the case of the pencil erasers it is to the rubber itself that the erasing action must be attributed, the graphite being removed by its adhesion to the rubber, the other constituents of rubber mixing being mere diluents and cheapening agents. In case of ink erasers it is not so. Hence in making pencil erasers with pure rubber, fillers such as barites, zinc oxide, etc. which are employed, are merely diluents and cheapening agents. But in case of ink erasers the rubber only plays the part of the binding material for the compounds such as ground-glass powder, numice, emery, carborandum, sand etc which by their abrasive and scratching action tear up the paper and so remove it and its ink. Rubber compound for making erasers is usually sheeted

on the two-bowl calender to a thickness of from 7 to 25 m.m. These sheets can be vulcanised by French chalk at a low temperature but they are more usually vulcanised in frame moulds in a hydraulic press. The vulcanised sheets are cut up into strips and the strips into smaller pieces on a cutting machine that is either operated by hand or is driven mechanically. The small pieces are shaken in rotating drum to round off the sharp edges and corners, freed from dust, stamped and packed. The surface of the erasers is frequently required to be unsmeared and embossed. For this purpose the unvulcanised sheet is cured in moulds, the metallic bottoms of which are engraved with the desired design.

CHEAP WASHING SOAP

2999 D.R.B., Chaibasa—Desires to have formula of making cheap washing soap.

I.

Coconut oil	18 lbs.
Mahua oil	2 "
Caustic soda lye 38°Be	10 "
Water	35 "
Soda Ash	5 "
Sodium Chloride	1 lb.

Mix the coconut oil and the mahua oil. Place the mixture over fire, add lye when melted, stir well and let it remain there for about half-an-hour. Lighten the fire now and let it boil slowly. When the lye begins to separate and the mass begins to bubble, add about 10 lb of water and maintain the fire. Keep on stirring so that not one undissolved particle remains. Add the rest of the lye a few minutes later and keep on stirring the soap with a crutch. Now add half of the rest of water and add the other half with a solution of Soda Ash and Salt later on and let it boil awhile. Drop a sample quantity and if you find that it has attained the requisite consistency it is ready otherwise it may be boiled still further. A desired colour may now be added.

Such soaps do not serve much useful purpose. These dissolve readily. If these are sold while fresh these may prove profitable, otherwise these present a nasty appearance on getting dry.

II.

Coconut oil	20 lbs.
Caustic soda lye 38°Be	15 "
Soda ash	5 "
Soda Silicate	8 "
Water	40 "

Mix the entire lye in the oil all at once and let it stand for half an hour. Now place over a fire and commence boiling it with the addition of the entire quantity of water. The boiling mixes up the oil and the lye put the soda ash and the silicate in their natural condition and stir thoroughly while the soap is being formed. This will be a better variety of such kind of cheap soaps.

PHOTOGRAPHIC PRINTING PAPERS

3265 J.M.S., Borsad—Wants to have the recipes of making photographic printing papers.

(a) 4 per cent. cellaidin collodion	620	c. c.
Sulphuric ether	100	"
Alcohol (.796)	30	"
(b) Silver nitrate	25	grains.
Distilled water	25	c. c.
Alcohol (.796)	120	"
(c) Calcium chloride crystals	4	grains.
Distilled water	4	c. c.
Alcohol	5	"
(d) Citric acid	5	grains.
Distilled water	5	c. c.
Alcohol (.796)	30	"
(e) Castor oil solution (1 of oil in 2 of alcohol)	15	"
Glycerine solution (glycerine 1; alcohol 2)	15	"

Now add (b), (c), (d) and (e) to (a) in this order with thorough shaking. Coat on baryta-coated paper and allow to dry. The operation must be conducted in darkness. This gives a paper especially suitable for separate toning plates.

LUSTRE POLISHING STICKS

3343 T.N., Trichy Desires to know a formula of preparing lustre polishing sticks.

100 lb. oleo stearine and 20 lb. of double-pressed stearic acid is placed in a kettle and heated by being brought to a temperature slightly above 130 degrees F.

To this hot mixture, add 5 lb. of triethanola-mine and allow the resultant mixture to stand. While still hot, a sufficient time for thorough commingling and to enable the chemical reaction of saponification to be completed.

The above mixture is fed into a suitable mixing machine, which has been previously heated, and there slowly commingled with 220 lb. of tripoli powder and 180 lb. of powdered lard, this mixing operation generally requiring about one and one-half hours. The compound is transferred to suitable moulds in which it is allowed to solidify and harden into cakes of suitable size and shape for convenience in application to bulling wheels.

ABRASIVE WHEELS

Abrasive wheels are made in various ways. One method which we describe below using shellac in a dry state and transferring the mixture to a hot mould where it is subjected to pressure. The heating is continued until the shellac is melted sufficiently to unite the particles of abrasive. The pressure is then released and the articles are baked in an oven at a slightly higher temperature so as to complete the bonding process.

For small articles the cold mixture of abrasive and shellac is sometimes placed in an iron mould and stamped, rolled or compressed with an iron-shod tool. The very fragile articles are then baked at a temperature just sufficient to make the shellac viscous, the heating being continued as long as is considered necessary.

The proportion of bond required is usually from 5 to 7 per cent. of the weight of the abrasive, but larger proportions are sometimes employed.

The great advantage of shellac over all other bonds is the elasticity which it imparts to the wheels in which it is used.

CAUSTIC POTASH

3353 I.S., Delhi—Desires to know a process of preparing caustic potash.

Caustic potash is largely used in the manufacture of soft soap. It may be prepared by decomposing a dilute solution of potassium carbonate with slaked lime. For this purpose one part by weight of potassium carbonate is dissolved in 12 parts of water, the solution placed in an iron or silver vessel provided with a lid, heated to the boiling point, and then milk of lime gradually added until a portion of the filtered liquid evolves no carbon dioxide when treated with an acid. The solution is allowed to settle, and the clear liquid drawn off into a well-stoppered vessel. This is then evaporated in a silver basin until the hydroxide begins to volatilise. In order to ensure the complete separation of the carbonic acid from the potash, not less water than that mentioned must be used, and the water which evaporates from time to time must be renewed, for when only four parts of water are present to one part of potassium carbonate no decomposition takes place. A concentrated solution of caustic potash is found to decompose carbonate of calcium. A certain portion of the caustic potash of commerce is prepared in this way. It is usually cast in the form of sticks which contain more or less water as well as all the impurities of the original potassium carbonate. It may be purified by dissolving in alcohol, and evaporating the clear solution to dryness in a silver basin.

Pure caustic potash may also be obtained by adding powdered potassium sulphate to a hot concentrated solution of barium hydroxide (baryta water) until a small quantity of sulphate of potassium remains in excess; this is then removed by a careful addition of baryta water; the clear solution is poured off from the barium sulphate evaporated in a silver basin, any baryta which remains in solution being deposited as carbonate by combination with the carbonic acid of the air.

LIVER OF SULPHUR

3317 A.D.D., Bombay—Wants to have processes of preparing liver of sulphur, etc.

SUGAR SCARCITY

Civilised countries use Saccharine Tablets instead of Sugar; one tablet sweetens a cup of any drink. A box of 5000 Soogrim Brand Saccharine tablets Rs. 15/- and a bottle of 1000 tablets Rs. 4/- V.P.F. free.

D. DARASHAW & CO.,
24, Jambulwadi, Bombay 2.

Liver of sulphur, which is employed medically, is obtained as a greenish-yellow mass by heating 2 parts of potassium carbonate with 1 part of sulphur, and consists of a mixture of K_2S , K_2S_2 , and $K_2S_2O_8$.

OPPER SULPHATE

Copper sulphate is obtained by directly dissolving the metal in concentrated sulphuric acid; for this purpose copper and sulphuric acid are heated together. The metal is oxidised by a portion of the oxygen of the acid, while sulphurous acid escapes. The crude copper obtained by smelting the ore, and containing about 60 per cent. of metal is treated with sulphuric acid. The resulting solution is evaporated in leaden vessels and the clear liquid is left to crystallise in copper pans. From the mother liquor of the crystals, metallic copper is precipitated by means of iron, because the presence of a large quantity of iron sulphate renders this mother liquor unfit for further making of blue vitriol. This method of obtaining copper sulphate is the least expensive but the salt is not quite pure.

ELICATE PAINT

When the surface to be painted is of a mineral nature, such as the exterior of a house, the pigments may be mixed with a vehicle consisting chiefly of water glass, or soda or potash silicate. This method of painting requires some care, and a knowledge of the chemical nature of the pigments used. Some colours are completely destroyed by the alkali contained in the water glass. Among those pigments which are not altered by the alkali may be mentioned lime carbonate, baryta white, zinc white, cadmium yellow. Naples yellow, baryta chromate, chrome red, red ultramarine, blue ultramarine, cobalt blue, cobalt green, chrome green, ivory black. When a wall is to be painted it should first be prepared with a mortar composed of pure lime and clean sharp sand. The water used should also be free from saline impurities, as these might subsequently effloresce and destroy the surface of the paint. When the surface of its plaster is dry, a weak solution of water glass should be applied, and the operation repeated several times.

AMLA OIL

3416 A.C.P., Banaras—Desires to have a recipe of making amla oil and also Chyavanaprassa.

Take 2½ seers sesamum brayed to a paste, 1 seer emblic myrobalan free from seeds and husked, and 10 seers sesamum oil. Put the

three ingredients together in an iron vessel and place in the sun for one month. Strain out only 5 seers of the soaking oil and put in a fresh lot of 5 seers sesamum oil. Leave aside for one month; strain out again 5 seers of oil and put in a third and fresh lot of 5 seers of oil. Repeat the operation for 6 months. Then strain the whole of the oil and mix together the former quantities. Put in a covered vessel.

Amla oil prepared in this way serves as a good hair dye. Smear the head with it every day half an hour before bath. The hair will be dyed black and no grey hair will be noticeable.

CHYAVANAPRASA

Chyavanaprassa, an Ayurvedic preparation so familiar among the people is composed of the following drugs:—

Barks of *Aegle marmelos*, *Premna serrata*, *folia*, *Bignonia indica*, *Gmelina asborea*, *Bignonia suaveolens*, the roots of *Sida cordifolia*, *Hedysarum gangeticum*, *Doodia* or *Uraria lagopoides*, *Phaseolus trilobus*, *Glycyne debilis*, the piper longum, *Tribulus languinus*, *Solanum Zanthocarpum*, *Rhus Succedanea*, *Phyllanthus niruri*, *Grapes*, *Cacogeomys ovals*, *Apotaxis auriculata*, *Aquilaria agallocha*, *Chebulic myrobalans*. *Tinospora cordifolia*, *Riddhi* (not being obtainable, *Bala* or *Sida cordifolia* is used). *Jivak* (Not being obtainable, *Tinospora cordifolia* is used), *Rishabhaka* (*Bhuml Kushmanda* or *Bamboo Manna* is used), *Curcuma zerumbet*, the tubers of *Cyperus rotundus*, *Boerhavia diffusa*, *Meda* (*Withania sonnifera*; not being obtainable *Cassia fistula* is used), *Eleotaria cardamomum*, *Nymphae stellata*, *Red sandal wood*, *convolvulus paniculatus*, the roots of *Justicia adhatoda*, the root called *Kakoli*, & *Leea hirta*. Take one pala of each of these. Take also 500 fruits of *Phyllanthus Emblica* and tie them loosely in a piece of cloth. Boil all these together in 64 seers of water down to 16 seers and strain the decoction. Throw out the seeds of the myrobalans and taking the remnants of the fruits, fry them in 6 palas of ghee and 6 palas of sesamum oil mixed together. The fried product is then to be reduced to a paste on curry stone. After this boil the decoction and this paste, with 50 palas of sugar candy. When the boiled matter assumes some degree of consistency, throw into it bamboo manna 4 palas, the powder of *Piper longum* 2 palas, that of the bark of *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* 2 tolas, that of the leaves of *Cinnamomum tamala* 2 tolas, that of *Cardamoms* 2 tolas, and that of the flowers of *Mesua ferrea* 2 tolas, and stir the contents. When cooled, add 6 palas of ghee and keep the compound in a jar long in use for storing ghee. Dose.—½ to 2 tolas, vehicle being goat's milk. This is a nutritive tonic, useful in phthisis, and improves all conditions of debility.

CHEMICAL SHARPENING OF FILES

Files that are not too badly damaged may be sharpened by immersing them in an acid solution. Prior to attempting to resharpen a file, it should be thoroughly cleansed of oil and other particles of dirt, preferably by the use of a

TRADE MARKS & PATENTS

For any difficulty in registration of trade marks & patents in India or abroad Consult:

DEWAN RAJ KUMAR,

Trade Marks & Patents Attorney,

78, Pedar Chambers, Fort, Bombay.

Phone: 32444. Note: Head office of Trade Marks Registry for India is in Bombay.

solvent. The files are then resharpened by immersing them for 20 to 25 minutes at room temperature in a solution composed of the following:—

Sulphuric acid	7 oz.
Copper sulphate	2 "
Borax	2 "
Water	1 pint.

When the files are removed, they will be covered with a sludge. This should be removed by a vigorous wire brushing.

ARTIFICIAL VELVET

Of the several methods of production the simplest is the use of a concentrated rubber latex dispersion. Practically any cloth is suitable for the fabric base, but of course, certain types are better than others. It is not unusual to give the fabric a preliminary light dressing of latex on one side. This promotes a smooth surface in the case of cloths which lack the required smoothness, and also prevents excessive shrinkage. Where a light weight fabric forms the base, or a waterproof product is required, a thorough initial coating is required. A representative formula for a suitable compound is as follows:—

Concentrated latex	100 parts.
Sulphur	3 "
Zinc oxide	5 "
Casein Solution (10 per cent)	5 "
Accelerator (of D. C.)	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Antioxidant	$\frac{1}{2}$ part.

Modifications of above may be necessary to suit particular cases. The initial coating is effected by a spreading machine, during which penetration of light weight fabrics is avoided by stretching and not exerting counter pressure. The spreading knife should always be fairly sharp, and set in the opposite direction to that in which the cloth is running.

The mix is then diluted with water and poured into the trough through which the fabric is running on a rubber roller. The level of the mix is adjusted so that it just reaches the surface of the fabric. The artificial velvet base then goes forward to the machine which applies the velvet dust on the still moist surface. Rotating sieves, preferably hexagonal in shape and of 1 millimetre gauge, carry the dusting media. They should cover the same areas. As the amount of dust they release varies with the amount they contain, both sieves should be in rotation. When they are full or nearly empty, and only one operation when they are half empty, and therefore releasing most dust. About 6 times as much dust is shaken on the base as is finally required. Meanwhile the fabric is beaten quickly and regularly from underneath with flat instruments to insure that each individual hair assumes as perpendicular a position on the cloth as possible. The material is then left for about 10 minutes on a hot plate, or pressed over drums heated by approximately 5 lbs. of steam to dry it.

Brushing with soft cylindrical brushes takes place when the artificial velvet is quite cold. The

superfluous dust removed by this process may be recovered and used again. Vulcanisation the final stage, is best carried out in a hanging position and heating for 10-30 minutes at a temperature of 140°C to 150°C.

Different effects may be obtained by varying the dusting media, silk, artificial silk, wool, and cotton dust are also used. The depth of pile may also be varied, and it is possible to emboss these artificial velvets. A similar process is used to produce cloths hardly distinguishable from mosquitoes and suede.

SHELLAC

3390 S.H.J. Bombay—Wants to know briefly the preparation of shellac.

Shellac is made by mixing a certain percentage of rosin with seed-lac. The rosin is ground and sifted, and 15 per cent of the weight of the seed-lac used, are added, and the mixed dust is inserted within a long cloth bag. One end of the bag is tied to a post and the other end twisted, while a fire is kept between under the bag. As the twisting over fire proceeds, the dust gets converted into a liquid form and comes out, and is gathered from the surface of the long bag, with brass plates or plantain leaf-sheaths, in the form of shellac. The long bag is only about 6 inches in circumference, but the length may be 15, 30, or 300 ft., according to the quantity of the dust treated. The shellac may be fused in pots into the shape of buttons. This is then known as button lac.

INK FOR STAMPING ON BALLOONS

Nigrosin	3 grm.
Water	15 "
Glycerine	70 "
Alcohol	q.s.
Lamp black	q.s.

Dissolve the nigrosine in the water; add a few grm. of alcohol, and then the glycerine. To this mixture add, with constant trituration, enough lampblack to make a thick cream. Dilute this to the desired fluidity with alcohol.

H A R I K U M E ' S

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CALCUTTA - 1.

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—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEMS

[Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to write us his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful career. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by post.]

STARTING A POULTRY FARM

1543 L.M.P., Gangpur — Will you please discuss the prospect of poultry farming in our town?

Many portion of India, where the rainfall is not excessive are admirably adapted to the breeding of fowls specially so where the soil is sandy, gravelly or filled with kunkur. I think your place will be suitable for poultry farming. Imported poultry keeping and rearing is progressing yearly. There is no reason whatever why you would not be able to be successful in poultry farming as place is favourable for starting a poultry farm but you should not depend too much upon your servants, who take no interest in the farmyard and are quite ignorant of what is necessary to its success. The greater number of stocks are killed off, not through climatic influences, but through want of care in the quality of water given to them to drink which should be renewed at least once or twice a day. It is most necessary that there should be sufficient room for the number of fowls kept, they cannot be entirely imprisoned and yet kept in a thriving and healthy condition. The fowl house and run must not be overcrowded, so the number of fowls to be kept will depend upon the size of the house and run. A house five feet long, five feet wide and six feet high is necessary for very large birds. More than five birds should not be kept in this space. The floor of the fowls run must be dug up once or twice every year to a depth of a foot, and great care must be taken to keep the place quite clean or else disease will soon break out in some form or other and destroy the fowls. Charcoal and ashes are beneficial and should be frequently scattered over the ground in the run and house.

A NEWS STAND

23 L.L.B., Dacca — Writes, I have a capital of Rs. 500 which I have borrowed from one of

my friends. Now I wish to start a business so that I can get a decent return. Will you please suggest a profitable business?

If you are very earnest for starting an independent business I would suggest you to begin your career as newsboy. First select a very suitable place preferably in the heart of the town. Then erect a news stand after taking necessary licences. This will cost you very little. The great advantage of this business is that it has no dead stock. Unsold papers and magazines are returnable. The publishers take the risk.

I think the capital you have got will be sufficient for starting the above business and you can earn decent living out of it. No one else in business makes as many profits on his capital as a newsboy does. You will also get good chance to develop your business. As soon as you secure enough capital you can put in a line of cheap novels and other books of common interest. You may also sell stationery articles required by School and College students.

For further developing your business you may put a signboard "You may order and book here".

As soon as you become acquainted with a customer, you can ask, "Is there any magazine that you would like regularly?". Most customers buy from several news stalls. Consequently you should try to secure all their trade.

You should remember if you can, what every regular customer wants, and hand it to him without being asked. That will help you to keep your customers.

Further this business has ample scope to be developed to a publishing house. I personally know some of the premier publishers who began their career as newsboy. But to prosper in this business you should stick to the business and do not leave it if you find any difficulty in the beginning and you are likely to make mistakes at first. But have ample self-confidence and perseverance. You must keep on and work hard.

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—BRIEF QUERIES AND REPLIES

Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from our readers will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of 8 stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two International Reply coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters.

118 R.C.J., Kanpur—A formula of cement plastic will appear in due course.

119 S.B.S., Sirsi—Following is a process for making honey: For 3000 parts of fresh water, take 875 parts of water, 150 parts of dried and pulverised charcoal, 70 parts of powdered chalk and the whites of 10 eggs beaten in 90 parts of water. Put the water and the chalk in a vessel capable of holding $\frac{1}{2}$ more than the mixture and boil for 15 minutes; then introduce the charcoal and stir the whole. Add the whites of eggs and continue to stir and boil again for 3 minutes. Take from the fire, and after allowing the liquid to cool for a quarter of an hour, filter and to secure a perfectly clear liquid filter on flannel. Betelnut cutting machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P-12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. You should pack cardamom and pepper in tin cans which may be had of the Tin Box Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 1, South Mitter Lane, Calcutta and National Sheet & Metal Works Ltd., 36A, Sahitya Bhawan Street, Calcutta.

120 R.P.C., Colombo Process of manufacturing rubber paint will appear in due course.

121 B.R.C., Ambala Cantt. Process of manufacturing nitro-cellulose or cellulose nitrates will be found in any book on artificial silk. You may consult the Manufacture of Artificial Silk by Wheeler.

122 P.C.S.R., Puri Following is a list of spice dealers: Dinshaw & Sorabjee, Sealdah Station, Jubilee Stores, 35, Park St., Calcutta; Ghosh & Co., 195, Govindappa Naick Street, Calcutta; and Nathulal Mangal, 178, Anna Pillai Street, Madras. Following is a list of spice dealers: Bishnidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta; Brij Kishore Shah, 11-1, Rupnarayan Roy Street, Calcutta; Bishnupada Chatterjee, 23A, Maharshi Debendra Road, Burrahat, Calcutta; Giridhari Saha, 231, Maharshi Debendra Road, Calcutta; Ananthlal Dhamani Co., 7, China Naiyakaran Street, Madras; Ghosh & Co., 203, Govindappa Naick Street, G. Madras; Sirdarmall Seshamall, 47, Govindappa Naick Street, Madras.

123 S.K.G.S., Robertsonpet—For chalk stick materials enquire of Calcutta Mineral Products Co., Ltd., 31, Jackson Street, Calcutta.

124 M.N.M., Panchmahal We have no book on pottery industry. You may consult Manufacture of Pottery by H. N. Ghose, published by the same Publishing Co., 1, Church Road, Bharu.

125 H.C.I., Jhansi—Stream water which you use in manufacturing phenyle is perhaps hard

water so the disinfectant does not dissolve in it and does not become white.

243 U.E.C., Jubbulpore—Following is a list of timber merchants: Bharat Timber Industries, Sayani Road, Elphinstone Station, Bombay; Bombay Timber Importing & Landing Co., Colaba Chambers, Colaba, Bombay; M. Amratlal & Co., Tank Bunder, Reay Road, Bombay; Dutta & Co., 187, Maharshi Debendra Road, Calcutta; Ganges Timber Trading Co., 67-23, Strand Road, Calcutta; Imperial Timber Corporation, 59-60, Strand Road, Calcutta; T. Sashadri Iyengar & Sons, 8, Sembudos Street, G. T., Madras and T. Sampath, Sydenham Gardens, Sydenham Road, Vepery, Madras.

244 I.C.B., Bandra—Mantles are knitted from artificial silk fabric, cut into suitable lengths and stitched. These are next dipped in the following impregnating solution: Thorium nitrate 1000 parts; cerium nitrate 10 parts; magnesium nitrate $1\frac{1}{2}$ parts; beryllium nitrate 5 parts; distilled water 2000 parts. Mix. The time of immersion of the artificial silk mantles varies from about 2 minutes to about 13 minutes according to the nature of artificial silk.

245 A.V., Kothapeta—For gelatine capsule enquire of Butto Kristo Paul & Co., Ltd., 1 & 3, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta.

246 R.L., Sabarmati—Playing cards may be had of S. A. Leonard Biermans, 13-1A, Govt. Place East, Calcutta; United Playing Card Co., Sadar Bazar, Delhi and Indian Playing Card & Carton Manufacturing Co., Lashkar, Gwalior.

247 G.S., Srinagar—Process of deodorising kerosene oil will appear in due course.

248 T.I.P., Kapadwanj—Wire nail, paper clip making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P-12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. Safetypin making machine may be had of Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A.

249 B.T., Shillong—Process of making alcohol will appear in due course.

250 T.P.D., Ramnad—We have no book dealing with retreading rubber tyre. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta for the book.

251 A.K.D., Calcutta—Process of drilling

STANDARD CHEMICAL & PHARMACEUTICAL WORKS

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1, Jahar Lall Dutt Lane, Calcutta.

glass plate will be found in October 1949 issue of *Industry*.

252 J.M.P., Jaipur City—Slate and slate pencil may be had of Sri Vivekananda Swadeshi Slate Works, Markapur; Sree Jaya Bhairavi Slate Works, Markapur and Markapur Slate Works, Markapur, Kurnool. Cycle and cycle parts may be had of Hindu Cycle Ltd., Anand Devchand Bldgs., 45-57, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay; India Cycle Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 9, Tinja Road, Calcutta; Jai Hind Cycle Works, Old Gurgaon Road, Paherganj, Delhi and Kanjit Engineering Works, Ludhiana. For rubber heels etc. enquire of Bhattacharya Rubber Works, 174, Jessore Road, Dum Dum; Bata Shoe Co. Ltd., Batanagar, 24 Farganas and Bombay Rubber Co. Ltd., 428, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.

253 T.C.L.L., Salem — For lac enquire of the following firms: Bhagwati Prasad Agarwal, Ranchi; Indian Lac Co., Nishachatti, Dhanbad; and Badlikatra Lac Factory, Badlikatra, Mirzapore.

254 T.M.K., Lucknow—Following is a formula of vinegar: Molasses 1 gallon; acetic acid 4 lbs. Put the ingredients together into cask of about 40 gallons capacity. Fill it with rain water, shake it up and let it stand from one to three weeks and the result is a good vinegar. It is not possible to manufacture artificial tomato sauce. Process of manufacturing tomato products appeared in January 1951 issue of *Industry*.

255 T.S.L., Lakhimpur—For selling blue-apples you may negotiate with Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 164, Manicktala Main Road, Calcutta. You may also advertise in Calcutta dailies.

256 S.K.M., Bombay—Yes, you may enclose any kind of advertisement matter in a same packet. You may consult Bombay Market, 21, Dadyseth Aglary Lane, Bombay and Calcutta Exchange Gazette & Daily Advertiser, 5, Mission Row, Calcutta.

257 K.S.W., Arantangi—Process of manufacturing sodium silicate will be found in Chemical Industries in India published from this office, price Rs. 3-9 including postage.

258 S.R.V., Bowringpet—An article on tamarind seed kernel sizing manufacture appeared in March 1951 issue of *Industry*. For pulverising machine enquire of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Marshall Sons & Co. Ltd., 99, Clive Street, Calcutta.

259 V.N.A., Kapurthala—All the machines you require may be had of Oriental Machinery

Supplying Agency Ltd., F12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta; Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 15-3, Strand Road, Calcutta and John Dickinson & Co., 6, Clive Row, Calcutta.

260 L.A.P., Bombay—For wooden toys you may enquire of local wood engravers.

262 O.B., Ajmer—Caustic soda may be had of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., 18, Strand Road and Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane; both of Calcutta.

263 M.A.M.K., Porbandar—In order to cheapen candy freeze the water and dip in syrup.

264 G.S.D., Bombay—You should use potassium carbonate in making artificial soap.

265 H.L.S., Hathua—Refer your query to Basak Brothers, 20, Raja Manindra Road, Calcutta 37.

267 H.N.B., Ahmedabad—Process of colouring celluloid sheets will appear in due course.

268 T.C., Mathura—For gramophone motors enquire of the following firms: Benal Musical Mart, 24, Moti Sil Street; C. C. Saha Ltd., 170, Dharamtala Street; India Gramophone Mart, 16, Moti Sil St. and K. C. Dey & Sons, 161-1, Harrison Road; all of Calcutta.

270 J.N.P.B., Russelkonda—Address of Borroughs Wellcome & Co. Ltd., Cook's Bldg Hornby Road, Bombay.

272 J.H., Colombo—All the chemicals you require may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Allied Agency, 16, Bonfield Lane; both of Calcutta.

277 B.S.S., Ambala Cantt—Glass tubes to be used as a component part of dropper may be had of Indian Glass Blowing & Mfg. Co., 4, Ramratan Bose Lane; National Glass Blowing Concern, 9, Nayan Chand Dutt Street and Scientific Glass Apparatus Co., 5A, Prosad Kumar Tagore Street; all of Calcutta.

278 N.S., Shiyali—Process of manufacturing peas cracker and crude crackers will appear in due course.

279 N.T.C., Bangalore—For gummed tape enquire of R. G. Pal & Co., No. 110/2, Grey Street, Calcutta.

283 S.C., Vizianagram City—You may use gum solution as preservative for gut.

284 G.L.K., Porbandar—Process of making slate pencil will appear in due course.

285 S.D., Calcutta—Limestone is burnt in a kiln and dehydrated lime is obtained.

287 B.S., Kalimpong—For drug licence and certificate write to Central Drugs Laboratory

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ry, Govt. of India, 110, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

296 L.I.S., Gauhati—We are not aware of any florist magazine in Australia.

298 P.G.M., Cachar—You may consult Automobile and Carriage Builders Journal published by Ed. J Burrow & Co. Ltd., 125, Strand, London, W. C. 2 and Automobile Engineer, published by Iliffe & Sons Ltd, Dorset House, Bedford Street, London S. E. 1. You may communicate with the Automobile Association of India, 40, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

299 S.C.C., Rajmahal—Reply to your enquiry letter has been published in Query Columns of "Industry".

303 A.R., Etawah—Reply to your letter has been sent by post.

305 S.O.M., Katni—For drums enquire of Standard Drum & Bucket Factory, 232, Bellasis Road, Benculla, Bombay; Benual Hardware & Metal Mfg. Co., 90, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Imperial Drums Factory, Old Baw Co. Mills, Grand Road Corner, Bombay.

307 S.D.R., Manfour Road—You may consult Banta Market, 2, Ramlochan Mullick Street, Calcutta and Bombay Market, 21, Dadyseth Lane, Bombay.

308 M.V.R.C., Bangalore City—Process of manufacturing candles appeared in April, 1950 issue of Industry, price is 12 annas including postage.

312 T.C.C.R., Kapadwanj—Wirenet making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P-12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. For other machine write to Ford Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A. Details of working the machines will be sent by the machine suppliers.

313 S.R.P., Jowal Sewing machine and wing machine parts may be had of Singer Sewing Machine Co., E-2, Clive Bldgs., Calcutta; C. Mullick & Sons Ltd., 77-13, Dharamtala Street, Calcutta and Dutta Chaudhury & Co., 21, Dharamtala Street, Calcutta.

316 J.C., Kanpur—You may practise as a homeopath without undergoing any training in a homeopathic institute but you have to study science privately at home. You may enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933), Ltd., 3, Trade East, Calcutta for self filling fountain pens. We are not aware of any such institute.

You may undertake loan business. Yes, you may appoint subagents if it is laid down in the agreement. We cannot advise you on any circulation scheme.

317 B.C., Kalyan—Process of mercerising will appear in due course.

318 D.L., Monghyr—Reply to your letter has been sent by post.

319 M.G., Tinsukia—You may apply the following black paint:—Amber 8 oz.; Linseed oil 4 oz.; Asphaltum 1½ oz.; Rosin 1½ oz. and Turpentine oil 8 oz. Heat the linseed oil to boiling point, add the amber, asphaltum and rosin. When well melted remove from the fire and gradually add the turpentine oil. As turpentine oil is a highly inflammable substance, it should be incorporated away from the fire.

322 R.U.I., Kanech—Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industry Prize Article Vol. I, price Re. 1-15 including postage.

323 L.S.R., Proddatur—Small machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta and Batlibol & Co., Forbes Street, Fort, Bombay. Glass bottles may be had of Calcutta Glass & Silicate Works, 9, Kundu Lane; Krishna Silicate & Glass Works, 17, Radha Bazar Street and Victoria Glass Works, 130, Mechua Bazar Street; all of Calcutta.

325 F.C.P., Shikohabad—Hindi equivalent of pyrethri is not available.

328 N.B.C., Banaras—Refer your query to India Liaison Mission, Tokyo, Japan. Following is a list of toy manufacturers and dealers:—New India Toys & Novelties, 581, Matunga, Bombay; Satcowrie Dass & Co., 196, Old China Bazar Street, Calcutta and Shree Khunva Muradhar Toy Works, 390, Sadashiv Peth, Nagpur City and Hari Charan Das & Co., 63-H, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta. You may start mail order business with Rs. 1,000 in the beginning. You may negotiate with Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, P-29, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

329 B.P.V.R., Veeraghattam—Address of Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd., is 9, Clive Row, Calcutta.

330 P.L.J., Delhi—Following is a formula of motor grease: Take 10 lbs. quick lime, slake well with water and sieve free from grit. Stir in 30 lbs. rosin oil and allow to stand for 12 hours. Then heat to 240°F. stir well until a good homogeneous mass is produced. Then allow the mass to cool. By heating rosin grease with rather more oil a clear transparent, jelly like mass can be produced.

331 L.M.H., Daheri—Formulas of different varieties of solders will appear in due course.

332 K.K., Kotah—You may consult Chemical Industries in India published from this office, price Rs. 3-7 including postage.

For G. I. Buckets, C. I. Pans, Weights & Net-balls

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AND

PREMIER HARDWARE MERCHANTS,

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AND MARK QUALITY AND PRICE



339 N.D.G., Bhiwani—Formula of plaster coating solution will appear in due course.

340 S.L.D., No address—You may dip the warm clothes in dry cleaning fluid and wash with clear water and dry in the sun.

342 B.Z.J., Kanpur—For textile machines enquire of A. N. Sanyal & Sons, 76, Ramnagar, New Delhi; Apollo Engineering Co., 84, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay; Bengal Textile & Engineering Co., 40-1, Strand Road, Calcutta and Britannia Engineering Co., Ltd., 28, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.

343 B.G.A., Hyderabad—Process of manufacturing ginger morabba will appear in due course.

346 T.E.C.R.G.W., Hindupur—Following is the process of preparing chicory powder: In order to prepare chicory, cut into slices the fresh root of wild succory or chichorium Intyless and expose it to heat in iron cylinders along with about 1½ to 2 p.c. of lard. Stir the slices frequently with ladle and remove them when they have been sufficiently fried. Now allow the slices to cool and afterwards grind them into powder in a mill. The addition of 1 part of good fresh roasted chicory to 10 or 12 parts of coffee forms a mixture which yields a beverage of a fuller flavour and of a deeper colour than that furnished by an equal quantity of pure coffee.

347 D.C.S.C., Hindupur—Vide No. 346 above.

351 M.E.W., Meerut—Following is a formula of iron casting crack filler: Iron filings 98 oz.; Sulphur 1 oz. and ammonium chloride 1 oz. Mix well and use.

353 G.J.M., Ahmedabad—Process of manufacturing all sorts of rubber goods will be found in Manufacture of Rubber Goods published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage. I think you have already got this book.

354 S.D., Meerut—Process of making chalk stick appeared in January 1951 issue of Industry.

355 I.K., New Delhi Essential oil is obtained by distilling rinds of orange and lime. We have no book on Foam manufacture. Nothing is added to aerated water to produce foam.

356 I.T.S., Bulsar—Following is a formula of thinner for cellulose lacquer: Acetone 80 parts; ethyl acetate 20 parts; ethyl lactate 20 parts. Mix and being volatile keep in well stoppered bottle. Following is a formula of cellulose lacquer: Scrap cellulose 5 parts; ace-

tone 20 parts; butyl acetate 15 parts; ethyl alcohol 12 parts; ethyl acetate 15 parts; benzol 28 parts; butyl phthalate 1 part, hexalin 1 part. Mix.

358 B.N.T., Asansol—For tobacco leaf write to Ashini Kumar Maity, 19, Raja Krishna Barabazar, Calcutta; Ambalal Kashibhai Patel, 3K, Rupchand Roy Street, Calcutta; Golden Leaf Tobacco Co., Guntur, Chandajee Kubahee & Co., Guntur and Commercial Tobacco Co., Guntur.

359 S.S.S.C., Monghyr—For Bareilly K write to Indian Wood Products Co. Ltd., Monghyr, Bareilly.

360 B.D.C., Kanpur—Following is the process of manufacturing rubber solution: For rubber cut in small pieces is placed in a bottle of naphtha or benzene in the proportion of 1 part of the former to 5 of the latter. The rubber gradually swells absorbing the solvent and eventually loses its tenacity. Now the mass, by vigorous stirring or the bottle on shaking at certain stage and this treatment repeated from time to time, an apparently homogeneous solution is finally obtained. This rubber solution is very sticky and tenacious.

361 V.M., Kanchipuram—In manufacturing soap you should take caustic soda lye 18 parts and dilute it further by adding 1 sr. water. Now place the oils on fire and when smoke rises add the lye slowly and stirring continuously until the mass becomes homogeneous like honey and sodium chloride and boil for a while.

362 O.S.C., Telaprole Collapsible tubes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., 82, Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta.

363 R.V.S., Tindivanam—Formulas of soap, pencil, water colour cake, etc. will appear in due course.

364 S.C., Pattukottai—Process of manufacturing sherbat will be found in Manufacture of Syrup and Cold Drinks published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage. The essences may be had of Paradise Perfumery House, 7, Colootola Street, Calcutta. You may consult Safety Matches and Their Manufacture, price Rs. 5/9/- and Manufacture of Soap, price Rs. 4/9/- including postage.

367 S.L.D., Jhansi—All the chemicals you require may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Allied Agency, 10, Bonfield Lane; both of Calcutta.

368 D.P.G., Pilani—Calcium chloride is used on the large scale, but in the laboratory the anhydrous chloride is used for drying gases and depriving organic liquids of admixed water.

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A treatise exposing in a simple style the manipulation of raw rubber in the manufacture of various rubber goods and giving detailed processes of their Manufacture.

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for this purpose it is better that it should be merely dried, as it is then more porous than when fused. Solutions of calcium chloride are used as baths for heating stone-ware stills and your apparatus liable to be cracked on the sand-bath. As a medicine it has been used in scrofulous and glandular diseases.—Dose, 10 to 20 gr.

369 R.J.P.C. Ahmednagar—It is not possible to recharge exhausted dry cell. Formulas for treatment, snow, tansen pill will appear in due course.

371 B.W., Banaras—For channas enquire of Ramshidhar Dutt & Co., 126, Khengrapatty Street and Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bould Lane; both of Calcutta.

377 H.L.Q., Agra You may correspond with Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Parade East, Calcutta and Chackraverty Chatterjee & Co. Ltd., 4/3A, College Square, Calcutta for publishing your book.

379 F.I.T., Calcutta—Process of manufacturing magnet will appear in due course.

380 T.K.G.S., Ambar—Raw materials required for manufacturing tooth powder may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bould Lane and Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane; both of Calcutta.

381 B.J.F., Manipur Rd.—For selling compound negotiate with the following firms—Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane; Dawn & Co., 11, Portuguese Church Street and Quannines (India) Ltd., 19, Strand Road; all of Calcutta.

383 B.N.S.V., New-Delhi Following is a list of Indian herb dealers: Drugs of India (Farmers) Ltd., 98-4, Netaji Subhas Road; Banra Lakshmi Bhandar, 13, Cotton Street; Ramshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street; Indian Herbs Stores, 31, Mullick Street and P. C. Dawn & Co., 1, Mechua Bazar Street; all of Calcutta.

387 K.V.S., Bangalore City Process of enamelling copper wire appeared in January 1950 issue of Industry.

390 R.C.P., Dindori Process of manufacturing phosphorus will appear in due course.

391 B.M.I., Partabgarh—You may manufacture rubber solution process of which will be found under No. 360 above

392 M.T., Jugsalai—For selling waste rubber and rubber advertise in Classified Barometer pages of Industry.

396 J.D.S.K., Palam Formulas of hair dyes and depilatory cream and hair cream will appear in due course.

397 K.S.K.P., Kumbakonam Process of water colour brushes and oil colour brush will appear in due course.

399 S.S., Delhi—Distilled water does not require further filtration. You may start fountain pen ink manufacture with distilled water

400 P.N.D., Calcutta—Lime stone when burnt in kiln is known as dehydrated or quicklime.

403 R.K.J., Rishra—Process of manufacturing aerated water will be found in Manufacture of Syrups and Cold Drinks published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage. For machine enquire of Essence & Bottle Supply Agency, 14, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta They will give detail information regarding manufacture of all sorts of aerated water.

408 E.K.R.M.K.M.R., Arantangi—For securing import license you may write to Controller of Imports, New Delhi.

415 K.V.S., Bangalore—Process of manufacturing enamelled copper wire will appear in due course.

416 D.S.C., Bangalore—Collapsible tubes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2 Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta.

422 V.T.E.C., Bombay—For phenacetin powder enquire of Butto Kristo Paul & Co. Ltd., 1 & 3, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta.

424 M.M.M., Rangoon—You may manufacture lac bangles from lac and sealing wax; but the process is not available. You better consult a mistry efficient in manufacturing lac bangles To communicate with any querist write him with number and initial care of Industry when your letter will be duly redirected.

428 P.C.W., Allahabad—Process of manufacturing fountainpen ink will be found in April 1950 issue of Industry. An article on wax pencil manufacture appeared in February 1951 issue of Industry. A good formula of tooth powder will be found in March 1951 issue of Industry. Following is a formula of slate pencil: Powdered slate 60 parts; powdered lime stone 30 parts; sodium silicate 10 parts. Knead together all the ingredients to form a plastic mass and then force it through metallic tubes of suitable diameter fitted with piston. Afterwards cut off into usual lengths and bake over a slow fire.

429 C.L., Kilakarai—Formulas of liquid gum will be found in April 1950 issue of Industry.

434 S.P.D., Patiala—Your first query is unintelligible. To check liquefying of duplicator in the summer season you may add barium sulphate.

436 M.S.G., Tiruchirapalli—You better advertise in newspaper for securing loans to finance a textile mill.

440 B.K.I., Kanpur—Carnauba and other waxes may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd.,

Technology and Manufacture of Printing Inks.

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10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta and Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Barra-bazar, Calcutta.

444 F.B.C., Amravati—Wirenail making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. Wire may be had of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta. Wire is a controlled article.

445 M.P.C., Rani, Rajasthan—Following is list of kirana merchants: A. H. Bhiwandiwala & Co., 45, Anderson Street, Madras; Bhikaji Labulal, 130, Varadhamuthiappan Street, Madras and Haji Ebrahim Kasam Cochinwala, Anderson Street, Madras.

447 I.F.T.C., Bareilly—Refer your query to the Minister in Charge of Local Self Government, Uttarpradesh.

449 M.A.A., Bhagalpur—We have no book on precious and semi-precious stone manufacture. You may write to Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3 & 4, Old Court House Street, Calcutta. Following is a list of precious stone dealers: M. Lalaram & Co., A4, New Market, Calcutta; Thakorlal Hiralal & Co., 9, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta; Hamilton & Co., Ltd., 8, Old Court House Street, Calcutta and Gem & Co., Great Eastern Hotel Arcade, Old Court House Street, Calcutta and Chimanlal Kothari & Co., 91, China Bazar Road, Madras.

451 A.D., Motihari—Raw materials for soap manufacture may be had of Calcutta Mineral Supplying Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane, Calcutta. Soap machines may be had of Small Machines Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

452 B.I.S., Sahibabad—An article on automobile rubbing compound manufacture appeared in December 1950 issue of Industry.

453 G.L.S., Srinagar—It is not possible to recharge exhausted dry cell battery. Formula of foot polish appeared in March 1951 issue of Industry.

455 K.V.N., Vellore—Following is a recipe for tea flavour:—Rose oil 4 drops; Neroli oil 34 drops; Cagnac oil 200 drops; Lemon oil 1½ oz.; Anillin 5 oz.; Benzyl acetate 5 oz.; Ethyl formate 1 lb.; Amyl butyrate 2 lbs.; Ethyl acetate 1 lb. Mix and keep in stoppered bottle for use. Process of blending tea appeared in November 1949 issue of Industry. As regards packing you should use airtight cans; and these cans should be artistic.

458 D.D., Coimbatore—Lemongrass oil is used as a flavouring agent in soap and other preparations. It is one of the cheapest flavouring agents available in the market. Ceylon quality grass yields good oil.

459 P.C.B., Howrah—An article on fountainpen ink manufacture appeared in April 1950 issue of Industry.

461 S.K.M., Rajkot—Brass and tin sheets may be had of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Nandan & Co., 43, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

485 G.G.P., Mugunuwatawana—You may consult Pharmaceutical Preparations published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

486 A.K.D.S., Ludhiana—Formula of lighter appeared in August, 1950 issue of Industry.

487 S.T.A., Colombo—For jewellery box fittings enquire of the following firms: Shree & Co., 38, Chandney Chowk Street; Bose, Bose & Co., 184, Chandney Chowk Street; Calcutta Hardware Stores, 137, 138, Chandney Chowk Street and City Hardware Store, 104, Chandney Chowk Street; all of Calcutta.

489 P.P.R., Tirupur—You may use bisulphide of soda for refining jaggery.

490 M.B., Kamptee—For shot making machines enquire of Jessop & Co. Ltd., 92, Netaji Subhas Road and Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta. For cut pieces enquire of the following firms: Bhaghatmal Surajmal, 16, Pagayapatty Street, Barra-bazar; Harendra Kumar Pyne, 203/1, Harrison Road and Indian Textile Co. Ltd., Great Eastern Hotel Arcade; all of Calcutta.

491 N.J.V., Murtazapur—You should add salicylic acid to the gum solution to prevent decomposition and the proportion should be 1 part acid to 1000 parts of gum. It is not possible to manufacture bindi without gum which is one of the main constituents of bindi. Minerals you require may be had of Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane, and Dawn & Co., 11, Portuguese Church Street; both of Calcutta.

492 G.R.B., Kurduvadi—For desiccated coconut enquire of the following firms: A. F. Jones & Co. Ltd., Union Place, Colombo. Adamee Lukmanjee & Son, 140, Grandpass Road, Colombo 14; Sherman De Silva & Co. Ltd., 23, Skinners Road South, Colombo and Saboor Chatoor & Co., 72, Hill Street, Colombo.

491 S.K., Khamgaon—We have no book on paint and varnish manufacture. You may enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3 & 4, Old Court House Street, Calcutta for the book required.

495 M.D.D., Bombay—You perhaps mean benzyl benzoate which is used in perfumery as a solvent for artificial musk. Formulas of solvent oil will appear in due course.

WIDE - WORLD ENGLISH CORRESPONDENCE

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-REVIEW OF BOOKS

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT PREVENTION by W. Heinrich. Published by McGraw Hill Book Company Inc., New York. Pages 470, price 60s.

Industrial accidents are matter of daily incidence in the industrialised countries. In India also with the spread of industries and employment of mechanical devices, the incidence of industrial accidents is ever on the increase. It spells considerable economic loss to the country in the shape of man-hour lost and heavy cost the country has to pay for stoppage of work. Hence the subject of prevention of industrial accident demands careful study in India where literature on the subject is rather conspicuous by its absence. We will therefore draw the attention of our industrialists to the book under review which makes a scientific approach to the problem of prevention of accidents.

This is a scientific age when each day is witnessing the advent of new mechanical devices and tools and hence it is not too much to expect that with a little care the majority of accidents may be preventible. A large number of uncontrolled accidents annually would mean a sad reflection on our inventive genius and power of organisation. Herein lies the usefulness of the volume under review.

The book makes a comprehensive study of the causes of the accidents and their remedy in a scientific way, and makes most interesting reading. It makes a scientific examination of the basic principles of accident prevention and claims that the occurrence of an injury invariably results from a complicated sequence of factors the last one being the accident itself. It is in turn is invariably caused or permitted by the unsafe act of a person or a mechanical or physical hazard. The unsafe act is again due to inherited and acquired faults of persons, such as recklessness, nervousness, ignorance of safe practice, etc.. Lastly, account should be taken of the ancestry and social environment for which may be responsible for the development of the above traits of character. The accident is merely one factor in the sequence but this series is interrupted by the elimination of even one of the several factors that compose it the injury cannot possibly occur.

The first step in the prevention of accidents is sound safety organisation for ensuring safety measures and direction and control of safety programme. This includes imparting education to the workers and provision of adequate first aid, medical and hospital facilities.

The second step is to find out the factors under which the accident has taken place. For this purpose each job is split up into its elementary units listed in their proper order and then examined critically to determine the causes of the accident and if possible to analyse the safety potential of a particular job. The safety analyst examines each step of the job in its process from its very beginning with respect to the method, machine or material involved and any or all of them can be responsible for the accident.

The third step in the prevention of accidents is to analyse the facts disclosed by the fact finding investigation and draw conclusion from the assembled data.

Subsequent chapters are devoted in a practical way to the selection of remedy on corrective action etc. and the application of the remedy which may be immediate and long term with large number of illustrations have been given for understanding the principles involved. A course of action is determined by way of the remedy which will make the recurrence of the accident impossible. All these facts have been dwelt upon in separate chapters.

The remedial action in accident prevention has been grouped roughly in four categories:— (1) engineering revision which includes guarding of machines, their redesigning with a view to minimising accidents; (2) persuasion and appeal to workers for strictly conforming to the instructions in safe practices, etc.; (3) personnel adjustment which means apportionment of labour with works that suit better; and (4) discipline and enforcement of rules under threat of heavy penalties.

Process revision may also be helpful in reducing the number of accidents and thus a separate chapter has been devoted to this. There should be a general realisation that processes under which accidents are possible are an indication of their inefficiency and require revision.

Accidents again occur on account of negligence in wearing personal protective devices in handling or working near harmful objects. Similarly occupational diseases may be prevented by recognition of hazards. New products and methods require new methods of control of diseases caused by them and incidental to industrial occupation or processes. This vital subject has also been studied elaborately.

Lastly there are chapters which deal with Safety Psychology, Industrial Fatigue, Illumination and Vision, which are to be taken into serious account when prevention of accidents is to be ensured.

The book is an important addition on the subject of prevention of accidents and deserves thorough perusal by all interested in the line.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE INDIAN CERAMIC SOCIETY, Vol. IX. No. 2, October 1959. Published by the Indian Ceramic Society, Department of Ceramics, Banaras Hindu University. Price Rs. 6.

This number deals elaborately with certain Indian and American clays in all their aspects e.g. colloidal behaviour, chemical and thermal analyses, microscopic examinations, refractoriness, whiteware and translucent bodies with auxiliary fluxes. This study is made by Dr. M. L. Misra. There is also a short article on Kyanite Refractories for Glass Furnaces by B. K. and P. N. Agarwalla and another on Heating System in a Porcelain Insulator Factory in Japan by S. Deb (Jr.).

NOTICES & REVIEWS

(Manufacturers sending specimens and samples of their products for notice and review may please note that no notice is published of medical preparations and allied substances in this section.)

POCKET DIARY & CALENDAR

We have received one pocket diary for 1951 and one calendar from Eastern Type Foundry & Oriental Printing Works Ltd., 18, Brindaban Bysack Street, Calcutta.

FOREST BULLETIN

We have received a copy of Indian Forest Bulletin No. 143 being the Interim Report on the Manufacture of Newsprint from Paper Mulberry by Chaffar Singh. It describes the experiment carried out at the Forest Research Institute on this work for newsprint production. It is published by the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, U. P. Its price is Re. 1/- only.

AUTOMOBILE NEWS

We have received a copy of the Annual number of Automobile News. It is fully illustrated with different models of motor cars and also the picture of the men who are doing business in this line all over India. It also contains several informative articles specially written for the benefit of the car owners and drivers. It is published by Gidwancy's Publishing Co., P. O. Box No. 6095, Colaba, Bombay 5. Price Rs. 2/-.

TECHNICAL BOOKS (IN HINDI)

We are glad to receive the following technical books in Hindi viz.

1. Soda caustic, Soap and Soap without Soda caustic. It deals with the manufacture of caustic soda, and soaps. Its price is Rs. 2/-.

2. Mirror Making: It deals with the detailed process of mirror making in simple language. Its price is Re. 1/-.

3. Candle Making: Describing the detailed method of candle making. Its price is Re. 1/8/-.

4. Sealing Compounds: It deals with the process of making sealing waxes and other recipes of sealing letters, bottles, etc. Its price is Re. 1/8/-.

5. Chemical Magic: Its price is As. 10/-.

All the above books have been written by Prof. F. C. Trehan and published by Hindusthan Industrial Association, Gurukula Kangri, Saharanpur, U. P.

BLUE-BLACK FOUNTAIN PEN INK

We have received from Pearl Industrial Work, 23, Telipara Lane, Shambazar, Calcutta, 4, one phial of blue-black fountain pen ink which is found to be good.

A BOOK ON ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

We have received a copy of electrical engineering book entitled "Electrical Distribution" by B. B. Pradhan explaining the subject with illustrations and numerous figures. This book is found to be useful to students, apprentices and others for all examinations of standard of the final grade examination of the City and Guilds of London Institute. It is published by K. N. Gokli, Matunga, Bombay. Its price is Rs. 2/8/-.

A DIRECTORY

We are glad to receive a copy of Kahan Commercial, Industrial & Agricultural Directory of Tanganyika. It contains not only classified lists of traders, but it gives a vivid picture of the territory's natural resources both agricultural and mineral together with other useful informations. The directory will be found useful to those who intend to have business connection with that part of the territory. It is edited and published by E. E. Kahan, Post Box No. 965 Dar-es-Salaam, British East Africa. Its price is 10 shillings.

TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write to him direct with name and address given below mentioning Industry.)

282 G. S. Kashyap & Sons, Patandi House, Daryaganj, Delhi: Want to be put in touch with the dealers interested in mathematical instrument box, students colour boxes and indelibles, etc. in Burma, Ceylon, Malaya, Siam, Bafra, Iran, Arabia, Persia and East Africa.

333 Sant Ram Verma, Government Contractor, Chhindwara, M.P.: Wants to be put in touch with the dealers in bristles and wants a financier to finance a good lucrative business.

338 Krishan Chand Bajaj & Co., 1500-1 Azizganj, Bahadurgarh Road, Delhi: Want to be put in touch with the exporters in the Far East of M. S. black sheets.

493 S. M. Sharif, Idreesganj, Hardoi: Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of dry cow guts, and also with tennis and badminton gut manufacturers.

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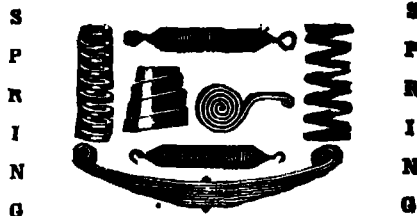
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PUBLICATIONS

Industry Year Book and Directory, 1951 with Classified Lists of Trades & Industries, Newspapers, etc. -- -- --	Ra. 15-0	Practical Metal Casting by D. Dey Scholar of City and Guilds Institutes of Technology, London --	Ra. 3-0
Theory & Practice of Commerce and Business Organisation. By J. C. Mitra F.S.S. (London), F.R.E.S. --	Ra. 12-0	Mechanical Industries—Dealing with the manufacture of Sheet Metal Articles—Safety Razor Blades—Wire Nail—Saffy Pin—Hair Pin—Paper Clip—Hinge—Spoons and Forks—Penholders—Collapsible Tubes, Fountain Pen—Leather Suit Case—Bucket etc. -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
The Electrician by V. L. N. Row, B.Sc., (Eng.), A.M.I.E. --	Ra. 6-0	Utilisation of Common Products The Collection of Citrus Products—Citric Acid—Tartaric Acid—Papain—Starch—Glue—Casein—Essential Oils—Tincture—Extracts etc. -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Apprentice Shop Practice by M. N. Swami -- -- --	Ra. 5-5	Independent Careers for the Young -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Tell What You Make—A Treatise on Marketing of Proprietary Articles in India. By F. A. Tyres Masseyk -- -- --	Ra. 5-0	Manufacture of Catechu , By B. Sen Gupta, M.Sc. -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Home Knitting by Rekha Banerjee --	Ra. 5-0	Manufacture of Syrups & Cold Drinks -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Safety Matches and Their Manufacture by K. C. Das Gupta -- --	Ra. 5-0	Manufacture of Rubber Goods -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Free Lance by R. Dhara -- -- --	Ra. 4-0	Chemical Industries of India -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Manufacture of Soap -- -- --	Ra. 4-0	Manufacture of Inks -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
How To Do Business by N. M. Banerjee -- -- --	Ra. 4-0	Clark's Manual -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Advertising to Sell by R. Dhara --	Ra. 4-0	Bengal Sweets -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Manufacture of Toilet Goods by H. L. Haldar, M.Sc. -- -- --	Ra. 4-0	Retail Trade -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Wide World English Correspondence by K. M. Banerjee -- --	Ra. 3-8	Traders' Manual -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
New Customers! How to Create, How to Hold -- -- --	Ra. 3-0	Manufacture of Disinfectants and Antiseptics by M. N. Mitter, M.Sc. -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
Journalism for the Indian Working Journalist. By R. Dhara -- --	Ra. 3-0	Dental Preparations -- -- --	Ra. 3-0
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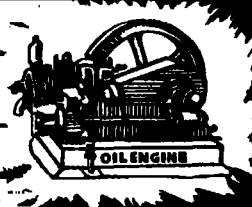


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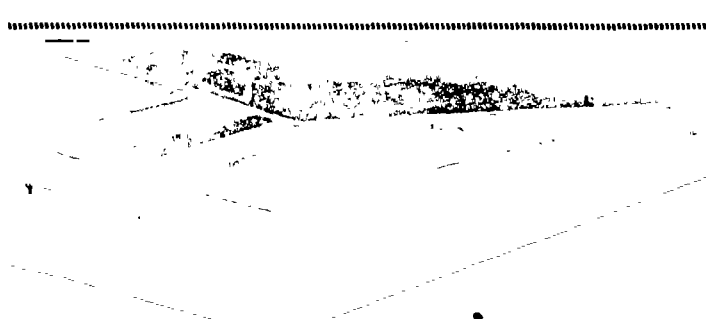
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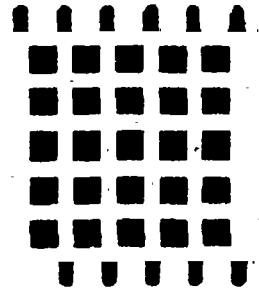
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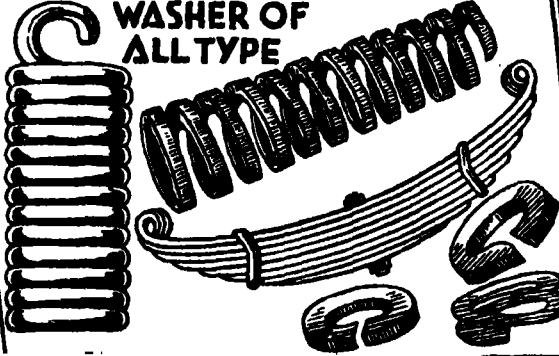
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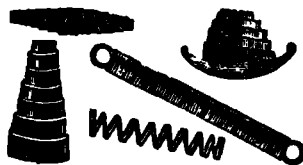
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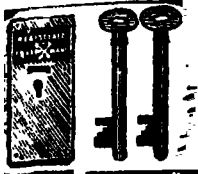
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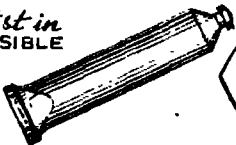
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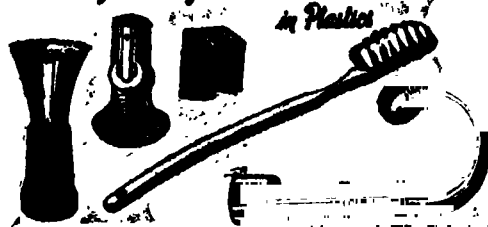
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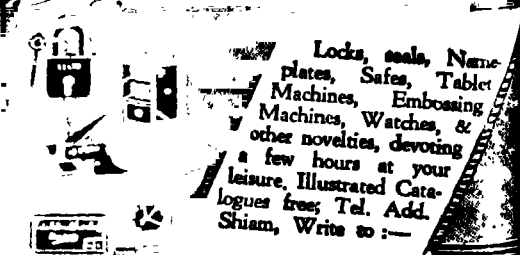


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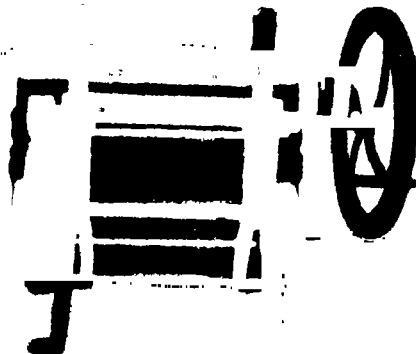
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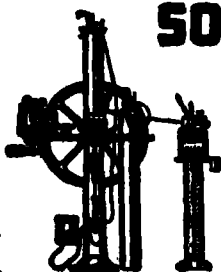


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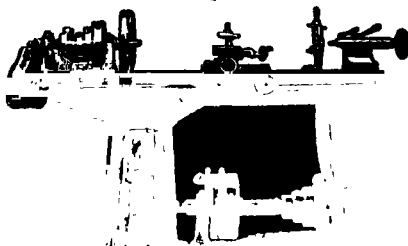
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Industry

EDITOR :

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No. 495.

NATIONAL INCOME ESTIMATION

THE importance of estimation of the national income of India has been long realised and attempts had been made at different times by eminent economists and statisticians to estimate the aggregate national income of the country.

As the previous estimates are all out-dated a Committee was recently formed with Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis as Chairman to prepare a report on the national income and related estimates. As the correctness will greatly depend upon relevant data and essential statistics, the Committee was asked to suggest measures which could be adopted from now for improving the quality of the available data and statistics.

The chief difficulties which the Committee encountered in framing the estimate included among others : (1) lack of empirical data; (2) absence of a uniform basis for evaluating commodities and services in terms of money; (3) absence of practice of keeping accounts by producers and consumers; and lastly (4) incidence of household enterprises as the major part of the Indian economy.

It goes to the credit of the Committee that notwithstanding these obstacles, it has been successful in submitting a preliminary report containing various illuminating facts and figures associated with the national income for 1948-49 and proposes to issue a further report with greater details towards the end of the year.

In calculating the national income, the Committee has classified the principal earners and their working dependants under the following heads : agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fisheries, minerals, industry including small enterprises, trade and transport, the professions and liberal arts, Government services and domestic workers. Estimating the net output of the different sectors of Indian economy and adding to this the net earned income from abroad the Committee comes to the figure of Rs. 8710 crores as the national income of India which when distributed among 34.104 crores of people gives the per capita income of Rs. 225/- which though numerically higher than the previous estimates will in view of the heavy rise in the index of commodity prices mean a sad deterioration of living conditions in India.

-CURRENT TOPICS

PAPER INDUSTRY IN INDIA

The total production of paper by the paper mills in India during 1950 is the highest on record to date and exceeds the figure set for the Industry by the Target Production Committee of 1,10,000 tons by some 400 tons odd. It is understood that extensions to productive capacity and the rehabilitation of existing plant have taken place during the year; and for the next few years, if all goes well, production of Indian made paper will increase by several thousand tons annually, and possibly more if world political situation does not deteriorate.

But how long the mills can maintain to-day's prices is uncertain as apart from the increasing demands of labour, mill's costs of production are mounting in other directions. Prices have gone up for the principal raw materials e.g. bamboo and sabai grass and also for caustic soda, bleaching powder, casein and general mill stores. Prices of the essential imports show a very steep rise, that of sulphur being simply colossal. The events of Korea have delivered another few turns to the wheel of inflation.

In other parts of the globe the demand for pulp and paper has skyrocketed prices to a high altitude but as a result of Government fostering the industry over a period of years by its encouragement the use of bamboo for the production of pulp, the paper merchant in India is in the happy position of purchasing his supplies of paper at more modest rates than elsewhere in the world. It is necessary that more thought is paid to bamboo as the fibre of the future, which may really oust the soft woods from their position of eminence.

Besides bamboo and grass which are mainly employed, rags, hemp and hemp ropes all play their part. Indeed, one

paper mill in India solely uses hemp and ropes. Owing to stock piling efforts, all of these materials are being exported from the country at ever increasing prices which the Indian papermaker cannot afford to pay without serious repercussions all round. It will be advisable for India to retain these materials for conversion into paper within the country than to have a portion returned in the shape of paper at a much higher price? Moreover present Forestry matters are the concern of the Government of the States whose policy is to derive the highest possible price in the shortest possible time by means of annual auctions of forest areas. But the policy should be otherwise and it is necessary to look to the future before our forests are too heavily damaged. The remedy seems to be long leases either direct with the mills or approved contractors so as to encourage the proper working of areas on a rotational basis of cutting.

FOREIGN INVESTMENTS IN INDIA

According to a recent assessment of India's foreign assets and liabilities by the Reserve Bank of India, foreign business investment in India on private account, as it stood on June 30, 1948, has been estimated at Rs. 397.86 crores. This investment which has been calculated on "book value" would amount to Rs. 596.44 crores when converted on market value basis.

Most of the business investment is on a long-term basis, constituting nearly Rs. 519 crores or 87 per cent of the total investment. The remaining 13 per cent represents mostly short-term liabilities of commercial banks.

Among the countries the nationals of which have invested in India, U. K. leads

with a total of Rs. 376 crores. Next comes U. S. A. (Rs. 30 crores), Pakistan (Rs. 21 crores); British West Indies (Rs. 15 crores); Switzerland (Rs. 10 crores) and Canada (Rs. 9 crores). The rest comprising about Rs. 135 crores is shared by various other countries. Trade and manufacturing concerns as well as plantations, managing agency companies constitute, by far, the major field for foreign investment.

Recent investments, after India became free, show that during the three years beginning 1948, a total sum of

10.47 crores was invested by foreigners in various industries in India including automobiles, bicycles, textile machinery, gram and gramophone needles, electrical and non-ferrous metals, agricultural machinery, paints, paper and boards, chemicals, drugs and pharmaceuticals, leather goods, raw film, woollen, vanaspathi sports goods, photographic materials and food. Among the countries which have invested during this period are U.K., U.S.A., Canada, Ceylon and Switzerland.

A Swiss firm is considering schemes for starting machine tool factory for India to be set up in Bangalore and a Swedish firm is offering technical assistance for the establishment of a Penicillin Factory. Technical assistance would be available from the Standard Cable Company of U.K. for setting up a Telephone cable factory in this country.

similar work in other countries, the Government of India also made available to the Committee the advice of three distinguished foreign experts on national income viz. Prof. Simon Kuznets of U.S.A., Prof. J. R. N. Stone of U. K., and Dr. J. B. D. Derksen of the United Nations, who came to India in December, 1950.

Already considerable progress has been made by the National Income Unit in its investigation work and a provisional estimate of national income for the Indian Union for the year 1948-49 is available. The computation of national income is, however, a continuing process and has to be carried on from year to year without a break as it has a vital bearing on the formulation of economic policies. It is, therefore, encouraging to learn that it is proposed to continue the National Income Unit in the coming year also.

An analysis of the statistical table shows that the net output per engaged person in agriculture is Rs. 500/-; mining and factory establishment Rs. 1700/-; small enterprises Rs. 600/-; commerce, transport and communications Rs. 1600/-; professions Rs. 600/-; Government services Rs. 1300/-; domestic service Rs. 400/-. It further appears that out of the total estimated national production, no less than 53 per cent. covers the consumer expenditure on food, which shows the underdeveloped character of our economy.

NATIONAL INCOME OF INDIA

The National Income Committee was set up to prepare a report on national income and related estimates of India, to suggest measures for improving the reliability of available data and for collection of further essential statistics and to recommend ways and means of promoting research in the field of national income. In order to benefit from the experience of

SOAP INDUSTRY IN INDIA

It appears from the presidential speech at the fourth annual Conference of the South India Soap Makers Association held in March that the production capacity of the soap industry varied between 16,000 tons in 1914 and 2,50,000 tons in 1948. The actual production

1,40,000 in 1944 and 2,00,000 tons in 1948 and it fell to 60,000 tons in 1950. The annual consumption of soap in India is estimated at about 1,25,000 tons. There would, therefore, be an exportable surplus after meeting the internal demands, if the productive capacity of the industry can be fully employed. There are 86 major factories and more than 5000 cottage industries which are manufacturing soap in India many of whom have already closed down and the rest are on the verge of closing down.

One chief difficulty met with is the exorbitant rise in the prices of essential raw materials such as vegetable oils, especially coconut oil, groundnut oil, etc. Another handicap has been the high import duty levied on coconut oil 42 per cent. standard and 30 per cent. preferential amounting to 40 per cent of the landed cost. Prices of all raw materials have gone up manyfold. To the misfortune of the industry the purchasing capacity of the masses has gone down at the same time due to various economic reasons. This leaves no room for increase in prices of soap. There was for a time a good demand for Indian made soaps. On the recommendation of the Soap Panel, soap manufacturers launched upon an expensive scheme sinking heavy capital. From 1947, there has been a steady decline in demand. The manufacturers hope Government will come to their rescue, and remove some of the more serious difficulties and ease the situation. If this is not done, the industry will be facing a gloomy future. One of the chief difficulties as previously stated, is the steep rise in the prices of coconut oil. The price in 1941 was approximately Rs. 200/- per ton; in 1950 it has risen to Rs. 2400/- per ton. Import duty on coconut oil in 1940 was approximately Rs. 50/- per ton; in 1950

port duty of Rs. 300/- in addition was brought the total duty to be paid Rs. 800/- per ton. The soap makers pray that the import duty should be completely abolished or at least scaled down so that Indian soaps may be manufactured economically and the surplus exported to the Middle East.

Caustic soda is another requirement which it is found difficult to procure. Of a total requirement of 60,000 tons, the production is 10,000 tons and the balance has to be imported. Government have given licences for import, but supply cannot be located in the U.S. or Continental countries due to stockpiling. It is hoped Government will instruct their Embassies or Trade Commissioners to locate supplies and inform importers and the Soap Industries so that they may get their requirements. It is suggested also that new caustic soda plants should be established to meet internal demand. The industry is struggling hard. With timely help from Government it is hoped it will regain lost ground at no distant date.

RESEARCHES IN METALS

During the last 10 years the Metallurgical Committee of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research has sponsored a number of important projects and as a result of its efforts production of new specialised steels and alloys has been established. At the suggestion of the Metallurgical Committee Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd. took up production of "surgical steel" of suitable quality for manufacture of surgical instruments during the War and commercial demand for these special steels is now being regularly met. Investigations on "electrical steel sheets" were completed and these are now being

the country's requirements to a large extent. Heat resistant alloys of several types have been made and methods of their hot working and heat treatment have been worked out at the Mysore Iron and Steel Works, as a part of investigations on the 'manufacture for electrical resistance alloys.' Several lengths of wire were drawn with excellent results. All these are examples of how expenditure on research bears excellent dividends.

The schemes now being investigated under the guidance of the Committee included: (i) production of aluminium metal by electrolysis of aluminium chloride; (ii) production of nodular cast iron; (iii) effect of high purity manganese as an alloying element in steels and (iv) copper titanium systems. These researches are of considerable interest from the point of view of effectively utilising Indian materials and producing some of the materials by new methods.

Amongst the schemes which have now been transferred to the National Metallurgical Laboratory are: (i) extraction of beryllium from Indian beryl for which a new method has now been developed; (ii) manufacture of high purity manganese; (iii) manufacture of permanent magnets and (iv) grain size control in steels of various metals. All these schemes aim at processing Indian ores and raw materials and convert them into valuable products for use in the country or export of the processed material abroad. Laboratory investigations on manufacture of aluminium titanium alloys have been completed and potentialities of commercial production are now being examined. Development of copper silicon bronze is awaiting field trials to practically test their suitability for use in machine bearings of various types.

In addition to these investigations a report on the utilisation and development

of high duty cast iron steel in India was compiled for the Railway Board and has been published as a part of the Indian Railway Conference Association Committee Reports. Extensive surveys of classifying and cataloguing of technical data have been carried out with particular reference to (i) fatigue in metals, (ii) wear of metals and (iii) surface hardening of metals. A survey of research data on (i) coinage alloys (ii) titanium, (iii) zirconium has also been made.

INDIAN STANDARD FOR STRUCTURAL STEEL

The use of steel in structures has to be based on rigid standards of performance owing to the paramount need for safety of human beings usually associated with such structures. Structural steel worth about Rs. 20 crores is now being manufactured in India and the Indian Standards Institution, 19, University Road, Delhi-8, therefore, brought out an Indian Standard Specification for Structural Steel, IS: 226-1950. (Price Re. 1-8)

The Specification covers structural steel generally used for bridges, buildings and heavy engineering construction. Owing to the present difficulties in obtaining proper raw material, it has been found difficult to limit phosphorus to 0.060 per cent which is usual. The maximum phosphorus content in the specification has therefore, been raised to 0.065 per cent with the proviso that when the steel is required for structures subject to dynamic loading, such as bridges, railway rolling stock parts, etc., phosphorus shall not exceed 0.060 per cent.

Requirements of structural steel sections, such as plates, rounds, square flats and rivet bars, have been laid down in specifications in respect of the process of manufacture, chemical composition with special reference to sulphur and phosphorus.

its content, freedom from defects and mechanical properties have been prescribed. An appendix to the standard gives the forms and dimension of tensile test pieces on which the values of the observed strengths greatly depend.

U. P. MANGOES FOR BRITAIN

The Agriculture Department of Uttar Pradesh is considering despatch of trial consignments of U.P. mangoes to London with a view to exploring commercial possibilities of Indian fruit in Britain. The despatches will be a continuation of experiments conducted last year which provided valuable data on the subject.

With the development of air transport, which has reduced the period of transit, it is now possible to pick the fruit in semi-ripe condition and export it to distant foreign markets without any deterioration in quality. As a result of the experience gained during the 1950 mango season, it is proposed that future consignments will be sent by rail from Lucknow to Delhi, where they will be uplifted by B. O. A. C. aircraft for onward carriage to London.

According to Mr. A. P. Gupta, Fruit Utilisation and Marketing Officer of Uttar Pradesh, who is mainly responsible for the experiments, Dashehri mangoes are better suited for export than the other varieties and the estimate of profit on this brand is as high as Rs. 75 per maund. In order to arrive at definite conclusions, however, Mr. Gupta considers that it is necessary to conduct further trials for two more seasons and see if mangoes can be profitably exported in any appreciable quantities on a commercial scale.

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE'S REPORT

Substantial savings are recommended

in the Estimates Committee's report to the Ministry of Works, Mines and Power. The Committee suggests that obsolete publications stocked in the central publication branch, should be weeded out and sold to the public at concessional rates and steps should be taken to get the more important publications reprinted. Government should explore the possibility of securing suitable advertisements for popular journals on a commission basis.

The proposal for the setting up of a new printing press at Nasik, the Committee recommends may be abandoned and instead the press should be installed at Aligarh, as this will lead to economy in expenditure on transport and overhead charges. Nasik, says the Committee, is not an ideal place for a printing press doing Central Government work. Most of the paper mills which will feed the press are situated in Northern India and huge expenditure will unnecessarily have to be incurred on the transport of paper alone. Considerable expenditure will also have to be incurred on freight charges in sending the printed materials from Nasik to the offices concerned.

The Committee urges that private enterprise should be encouraged to make up the works of developing and discovering the sources of wealth to supplement the work of the Geological Survey of India. In granting mining licenses to private agencies, royalties should be fixed at adequate rates. A mining cess should be levied on the lines of that imposed on sugar, tea, coffee, etc., and the proceeds utilised in establishment of a special branch of the Geological Survey for rendering technical advice to private concerns.

—NON-FERROUS ALLOYS

SCATTERED throughout the pages of technical literature are various references to non-ferrous metals and their alloys, the importance of which is apt to be forgotten because they become inaccessible after a short time. It is therefore desirable that such information should be carefully sifted and the useful matter selected and presented in a handy form. This is the purpose of this article.

In engineering works nearly all non-ferrous materials in the form of alloys are used with the exceptions of copper and aluminium, which are used fairly extensively in the unalloyed state.

Non-ferrous alloys are very numerous. They are grouped thus:—

1. Brasses alloys of copper and zinc.
2. Bronzes alloys of copper and tin.
3. Special brasses and bronzes.
4. Copper-nickel alloys.
5. Bearing alloys.
6. Aluminium alloys.
7. Magnesium alloys.
8. Miscellaneous alloys.

BRASSES

These may be subdivided into

- (1) Alpha — brasses, containing about 37 per cent of tin
- (2) Alpha-Beta—brasses, containing between 40 and 44 per cent of zinc.

The information contained in this article is based on data contained in a publication of the Copper Development Association.

The alpha brasses are capable of being cold-worked to a remarkable extent, they may be rolled, pressed, and drawn. They can also be worked hot, but not so readily as cold, while the presence of quite small amounts (0.1 per cent) of impurities such as lead will make

them "hot-short". Two 'qualities' of brass are commonly used, *basis quality*, containing about 63 per cent copper and 37 per cent zinc, and *cartridge brass*, containing about 70 per cent copper and 30 per cent zinc. A variation of the latter is Admiralty brass, whose composition is 70 per cent copper, 29 per cent. zinc, and 1 per cent tin. In the annealed state cartridge brass has an ultimate strength of about 20 tons per sq. in., an elongation of about 70 per cent on 2 in, and a Brinell hardness of about 60. Cold-working hardens the alpha brasses and reduce their ductility; thus, hard-rolled sheet gives an ultimate strength of about 35 tons per sq. in., an elongation of about 12 per cent, and a Brinell hardness of between 150 and 200. Four "tempers" are commonly recognised as being imparted to brasses by various amounts of cold-working; they are: (1) Soft; (2) Quarter to half-hard; (3) Hard; (4) Extra or spring hard.

The annealing of brasses is a re-crystallisation process, during which new small crystals are formed. This re-crystallisation does not occur at temperatures below 280°C., and heating to within this limit is done merely as a stress-relieving operation. At temperatures over 400°C., grain growth may occur if the heating is unduly prolonged. Annealing is usually done at temperatures between 300°C and 600°C., and the material may be quenched in water, or cooled in air, afterwards, the rate of cooling being unimportant.

Articles made of alpha brasses that have been cold-worked often exhibit what is called season-cracking—the formation of cracks some time after manufacture and without the application of any external load. This is due to the internal stresses left in the material by the cold-working,

and is accelerated by corrosive atmospheric conditions. It can be obviated by stress-relieving the articles by heating them to between 250°C and 275°C. for half an hour to one hour. As mentioned above, this treatment has no effect on the mechanical properties of the brasses.

THE ALPHA-BETA BRASSES

When the zinc content exceeds 39 per cent, a second constituent (the Beta form) appears in the microstructure of brass. This constituent makes the brass readily workable while hot. When the zinc content exceeds 49 per cent a third constituent (the gamma-form) appears: but brasses containing this constituent are rarely used. The alpha-Beta brasses containing this between 39 and 44 per cent of zinc are, however, widely used for hot-pressings, stampings, etc. One of the best known and earliest examples is that known as Muntz metal, whose composition is approximately 60 per cent copper and 40 per cent zinc. It is somewhat difficult to machine, but this can be remedied to a large extent by the addition of up to 3 per cent of lead. The lead, however, makes the metal hot short at about 550°C. and at temperatures above 750°C., so that it can be forged only between 650°C and 750°C. Lead is not soluble in copper or zinc, and remains merely distributed throughout the mass; trouble is consequently sometimes experienced from undue segregation.

BRONZES

These are alloys of copper and tin; although up to 16 per cent of tin may be retained in solution in copper if the alloy is cooled very slowly, the amount that can be retained with practical rates of cooling is about 8 per cent. Bronzes containing up to 8 per cent of tin correspond, therefore, roughly to the alpha brasses; then can be cold-worked, but not so easily as

the brasses. Tin contents greater than 16 per cent are used for castings and small amounts of phosphorus are sometimes added to help in the elimination of oxide and to improve the mechanical properties. Excess of phosphorus leads to brittleness and normally the content is about 0.05 per cent; in true phosphor bronze the phosphorus content is from 0.1 to 0.5 per cent. In the form of cast phosphor bronze will give an ultimate strength of about 18 tons per sq. in. and an elongation of about 4 per cent. Wrought bronzes will give ultimate strengths of 22-24 tons per sq. in. with elongations of about 60 per cent in the annealed state, while in the worked condition ultimate strength may be as high as 50 tons per sq. in.

GUN METAL

This is an alloy of copper, tin, and zinc and is widely used for castings, particularly when they are of complex form. A common composition is copper 88, tin 10, and zinc 2 per cent, and will give an ultimate strength of about 20 tons per sq. in. together with an elongation of about 20 per cent.

SPECIAL BRASSES AND BRONZES

Additions of manganese, nickel, aluminium, and some other elements improve the properties of brass and bronze and are widely used. In brasses the strengthening materials are generally known as delta metals, but the name delta is often misapplied. An example of a delta metal is delta brass, which is an alpha brass containing about 2 per cent of iron and 1 per cent of manganese; this alloy may be cast, may be worked (above 500°C.), is resistant to corrosion, and has mechanical properties that make it a useful substitute for mild steel.

In recent years much progress has been made in the development of brasses

can be heat treated so as to be made soft for working and then hardened and improved in mechanical properties.

Each alloy has the composition, copper 72 per cent, nickel 6 per cent, aluminium $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and zinc $20\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; it may be hardened by quenching in water from 500° C. and hardened by re-heating to about 500° C. and cooling slowly.

ALUMINIUM BRONZES

This name has been given to alloys of copper with up to 12 per cent of aluminium and sometimes, nickel, manganese, and so on. The copper-aluminium alloys containing less than about 7 per cent of aluminium possess great ductility; for example an alloy containing 4 per cent of aluminium will give an elongation of 80 per cent on 2 in.; these alloys may consequently be readily worked cold. Alloys containing from 8 to 12 per cent of aluminium are used for castings and will give a tensile strength of about 30 tons per sq. in. and an elongation of 20-40 per cent on 2 in. in the sand-cast state. When heat-treated the tensile strength is some 30 per cent higher. The alloys are susceptible to a heat treatment consisting of quenching and tempering.

These alloys have excellent corrosion-resistance properties, being practically immune in this respect to an 80-20 cupronickel. Their corrosion-fatigue properties are also very good. They are suitable for gravity die-casting but require special treatment when cast in sand moulds, partly because they have a very narrow freezing range and partly because they absorb hydrogen and oxides rather readily when molten.

NICKEL BRONZES

These are of two types: (a) low nickel, and (b) high nickel. The former contain 3-5 per cent of nickel, 5-10 per cent of tin, and 0-2 per cent of zinc, and

in the form of sand-mould castings will give an ultimate strength of 18-24 tons per sq. in. with an elongation of 20-10 per cent. The high nickel bronzes contain 15-60 per cent nickel, 6-12 per cent tin, 1-2 per cent zinc, up to 3 per cent silicon, and 0.1 per cent magnesium. They will give, in the sand-cast state, ultimate strengths up to 30 tons per sq. in.

COPPER LEADS OR LEAD BRONZES

These names have been given to a series of alloys of copper and lead with or without tin. They may be divided into three groups: (a) those containing 5-10 per cent of tin and 8-10 per cent of lead, which are used for castings for heavily loaded sliding members, slide-valves, bearings, etc.; (b) those containing up to 35 per cent of lead and only about 5 per cent of tin: these are sometimes called plastic bronzes, they have little strength and are used chiefly as linings to bearings, shells being used to support them. The third group comprises the alloys in which very little or no tin is used.

COPPER-NICKEL ALLOYS.

Nickel and copper alloy together in all proportions so that the range of copper nickel alloys is extremely wide. The addition of nickel to copper improves the mechanical properties and increases the resistance to corrosion. Up to 2 per cent of nickel is consequently now commonly added to copper for such things as locomotive firebox stay rods; in special circumstances up to 12 per cent has been used. When the nickel content is between 15 and 30 per cent the alloy has remarkable drawing properties, and is used for the sheaths or envelopes of rifle bullets; these alloys are called cupro-nickels. A 70-73 cupro-nickel is widely used for condenser tubes as it has been found to have outstanding resistance to corrosion and erosion. These tubes are

produced by an extrusion process followed by cold reduction in dies.

MONEL METAL

This is one of the most widely used and remarkable of the nickel-copper alloys. It contains about 70 per cent manganese, and traces of other elements, the balance being copper. It possesses very high corrosion resistance coupled with excellent mechanical properties, the latter, which are better than can be obtained with most other non-ferrous alloys, being well maintained at high temperatures. Monel metal can be cast and can also be worked both hot and cold; its mechanical properties are given in the table below. Recent researches have shown that, as with the nickel bronzes, additions of certain elements will make monel metal amenable to heat treatment. The elements used are aluminium, silicon, and beryllium and the hardening is a "precipitation" process, which occurs briefly as follows. The elements combine with nickel to form compounds that are normally insoluble in the monel metal case at ordinary temperatures but which can be retained in solution by rapid cooling. When the compounds are in solution the alloy is soft and readily workable, but when they are precipitated out, by heating to between 400°C and 500°C, and cooling comparatively slowly, the alloy is hardened and its mechanical properties are improved. Cold working also increases the strength and hardness but, of course, reduces the ductility.

The addition of aluminium, silicon, and beryllium to copper-nickel alloys containing up to about 30 per cent of nickel produces alloys that are heat-treatable and which have high corrosion resistance, though not to the same extent as monel metal. For example, an alloy containing 30 per cent nickel, 1½ per cent aluminium, and the balance copper, gives

an ultimate strength of 27 tons per sq. in. in the annealed (water quenched) state, and this value is raised to about 48 tons per sq. in. by reheating; if cold work is done on the alloy before reheating the strength may be raised as high as 60 tons per sq. in.

NICKEL BRASS OR NICKEL "SILVER"

These names, and also the name German silver, are applied to alloys of copper, zinc, and nickel; the copper-zinc ratio is generally about 70-30 while the nickel content ranges from 5 to 30 per cent. These alloys have a silvery appearance and possess very good resistance to atmospheric oxidation and corrosion, hence they find a wide use in both engineering and commercial applications. The table below gives some typical composition

Copper . . .	65	65	64	62	55
Zinc . . .	25	20	18	33	27
Nickel . . .	10	15	18	5	18

Recently it has been found that, with monel metal and the high tensile brasses, the addition of aluminium makes these alloys heat-treatable.

BEARING ALLOYS

It has been found that the most suitable material for use in many bearings is one in which grains or blocks of a hard constituent are embedded in a matrix of comparatively soft material. This is because the soft matrix permits the bearing to deform sufficiently to conform to the journal or shaft, while the hard blocks keep the wear low. The soft matrix also absorbs any particles of foreign matter that may get into the bearing and thus prevents scoring of the journal. Most of the bearing alloys now in use have this type of structure.

The structure is obtained in phosphor bronze, but the matrix material is too hard for these alloys to be satisfactory in heavily loaded, high-speed bearings, such as

and main bearings of high speed internal combustion engines. For lighter engines, however, phosphor-bronze is much used. The tin content may range from 5 to 20 per cent but usually is between 10 and 15 per cent, phosphorus is between 0.05 and 0.10 per cent, and up to 20 per cent of lead may be included. Phosphor-bronze bearings are sometimes made moulding a mixture of copper and tin, in powder form, in presses under heavy pressures (up to 40,000 lb. per sq. in.), heating up to about 700°C., and cooling in air or oil. These bushes, being highly porous, can retain oil in the pores, making them self-lubricating over long periods. Graphite may also be added in the mixture of powders.

For heavy duty bearings white-metal or copper-lead alloys are now generally used. The oldest white metal is Babbitt's metal, which contains about 80 per cent of tin, 5 per cent of copper, and 10 per cent of antimony. The antimony, in the form of a solid solution in the tin, provides the hard blocks in the matrix; these blocks, being lighter than the matrix metal, tend to float to the surface, but this is largely prevented by the formation of a compound of copper and tin which, being present in the form of a mass of needle-like crystals, entangles the antimony-tin blocks and thus prevents undue segregation. Because tin is expensive attempts have been made to develop white metals containing smaller percentages than are used in Babbitt's metal, and metals containing 75-84 per cent of lead, 5-15 per cent of antimony, and only 5-12 per cent of tin are now in use. The percentage of antimony is generally between 10 and 12 and this element again provides the hard blocks in the structure. Broadly speaking the more the lead content, the less severe duty the bearings can withstand.

In recent years "alloys" of lead and copper (misnamed lead "bronzes") have been developed and have largely displaced white metals in high duty bearings. These alloys contain from 25 to 45 per cent of lead, from 60 to 75 per cent of copper, and small amounts of other elements; for example, up to 1 per cent of tin or 1-1½ per cent of nickel and up to 0.5 per cent iron.

Lead and copper do not dissolve in each other at all and lead bronzes are merely mixtures of the two metals. Segregation is, therefore, a difficulty that is commonly met in the production of copper-leads, but with suitable casting or melting techniques it can be avoided.

ALUMINIUM ALLOYS

Pure aluminium is too soft, and its tensile strength is too low, for it to find much use in engineering applications but it is extensively used in a 99.9 per cent pure state for such things as motor-coach body panels, trimming, and fittings, and for architectural and domestic purposes. Additions of certain elements, however, improve the mechanical properties so much that, weight for weight, aluminium alloys are equal in strength to the best alloy steels and are consequently very widely used. The principal alloys may be grouped as follows.

1. Aluminium-copper alloys.
2. Aluminium-zinc-copper alloys.
3. Aluminium-silicon alloys, sometimes with copper in addition.
4. Alloys 1, 2, or 3 with additions of magnesium, manganese, nickel, iron, or tin.
5. Complex alloys, duralumin, Y-alloy, the R. R. alloys, etc.

THE ALUMINIUM-COPPER ALLOYS

The addition of copper hardens and strengthens aluminium, the tensile strength increasing steadily with the cop-

per cent up to about 8 per cent of copper, beyond which point little improvement occurs. Up to 12 per cent is, however, used because the machining properties of the alloy are improved by the higher copper content. Two alloys in this group are widely used for castings; one contains about 12 per cent of copper and the other from 6 to 8 per cent. The properties of the latter can be improved by a heat treatment consisting of heating to about 540°C. and quenching in water but the improvement does not occur until some days after the treatment. This delayed action is known as ageing and is characteristic of many aluminium alloys.

ALUMINIUM-ZINC-COPPER ALLOYS

The addition of zinc also hardens aluminium, but when the percentage exceeds about 13 the alloy suffers from hot shortness and is thus unsuitable for casting. This hot shortness can be eliminated by the introduction of 2½–3 per cent of copper and an alloy containing 13-14 per cent zinc and 2½-3 per cent copper is widely used. It has an ultimate strength of between 11 and 16 tons per sq. in.

ALUMINIUM-SILICON ALLOYS

In these alloys the silicon content ranges from 5-15 per cent and the alloys possess work-hardening properties. Thus aluminium-silicon sheets are supplied in three "tempers", hard, medium, and soft, according to the amount of work done on them during the rolling process.

When the silicon content is between 8 and 15 per cent the properties of castings may be improved by putting a small quantity of an alkaline metal, an alkaline-earth metal, or one of their compounds, into the molten metal immediately before pouring. Sodium is commonly used and the result is a great refinement in the structure of the material, the addition apparently checking the growth of the first

crystals formed and keeping them small in size. The process is known as modification. Thus a 13 per cent silicon alloy cast in the ordinary way might show an ultimate strength of only 6-8 tons per sq. in. and an elongation of only 0.5-1.2 per cent. If modification is done then the alloy might show an ultimate strength of 12-16 tons per sq. in. and an elongation of 7-15 per cent. The modified alloy is very malleable in the as-cast condition, they also shrink less than most other alloys during solidification and this helps in the production of sound castings.

DURALUMIN

This is one of the oldest and best known aluminium alloys and is widely used in the form of forgings, pressings and rolled sections but is not suitable for castings. Its composition is copper 3-5, manganese 0.4-0.7, silicon about 0.5 per cent and, sometimes, magnesium 0.4-0.7 per cent. Iron is usually present but must be kept below 0.5 per cent. Duralumin can be worked readily at temperatures of about 500°C. and after quenching ages over a period of 4-5 days.

Y-ALLOYS

This has the composition copper 4, magnesium 1.5, and nickel 2 per cent. It may be forged but is most widely used for castings. To develop its best properties it must be quenched in boiling water from a temperature of about 515°C. and then be aged at room temperature for about 5 days or in boiling water for about 2 hours. Its ultimate strength is about 15 tons per sq. in. in the cast and heat-treated form but chill castings, after heat treatment, may show a strength of 20 tons per sq. in. The alloy maintains its strength well at high temperatures and is widely used for the pistons of internal combustion engines.

MAGNESIUM ALLOYS

The only magnesium alloys of any importance are those known by the trade name Elektron. Of these there are several compositions, each used for certain particular purposes and each possessing special properties. One alloy, used for forgings, has the composition aluminium 7.5-8.5, zinc less than 3.5, manganese less than 0.5, impurities less than 1.5 per cent, the balance being magnesium. This alloy has an ultimate strength of about 8 tons per sq. in. For rolling into bars an alloy is used which has the composition aluminium 11 per cent, zinc less than 1.5 per cent, manganese less than 1.0 per cent, impurities less than 1.5 per cent. This alloy will show an ultimate strength varying from as high as 17 tons per sq. in. in the smaller sections down to about 14 tons per sq. in. in the larger sections. For rolling into bars an alloy containing more than 0.2 per cent aluminium and more than 2.5, 0.2, 0.2, 0.4, and 0.5 per cent respectively, of manganese, zinc, copper, silicon, and impurities is used. This will give a proof stress of 8 tons per sq. in. and an ultimate strength of about 10 tons per sq. in. with an elongation of more than 2 per cent. For general forgings a composition aluminium 7.5-8.5, zinc 0.55, manganese 0.15-0.25 is used and will give a proof stress of 11-14 tons per sq. in. and an ultimate strength of 18-22 tons per sq. in. a reduction of area of more than 10 per cent and a Brinell hardness between 65 and 75.

Elektron can be worked cold only to a very limited extent but at a temperature between 270° and 330°C. it may be worked readily. It is the lightest alloy known and is used extensively in aero-engine construction. It is poor in resistance to corrosion and must be protected by some surface treatment such as by painting.

The principal die-casting alloys are those having zinc, aluminium, lead, or tin as the base metal; the first two are much more widely used than the last two. Lesser used base metals are copper and magnesium.

Two commonly used zinc base compositions are: (a) copper 2.5-3.5, aluminium 3.5-4.5, magnesium 0.02-0.10 per cent; and (b) copper 0.1 max., aluminium 3.5-4.5, magnesium 0.03-0.08 per cent, zinc forming the balance in each alloy.

SOLDERS

These are divisible into two groups: (a) soft solders, and (b) hard solders. The principal soft solders are lead-tin alloys; thus tinsmith's solder ranges from about 40 per cent to about 70 per cent tin. A composition—tin 63 per cent, lead 37 per cent—gives the eutectic alloy, which melts at 183°C. British Standard Grade B solder has the composition, tin 50 per cent, antimony 2.5-3 per cent, lead 47.5-47 per cent. This is the type of solder used for most manufacturing work. Plumber's solder has the composition, lead 70 per cent, tin 30 per cent; it freezes over a wide range of temperature and, being pasty between the beginning and end of solidification, is suitable for making "wiped" joints. Tinsmith's solder is always used with a flux, whose function is to render fluid the oxides produced and to form a film over the surfaces being joined so that the oxides can be kept away. The chief fluxes are "killed spirits" or zinc chloride, ammonium chloride, resin, and tallow. Cored solder, in which the flux forms the core or cores, is obtainable and is being more and more used.

When hard solders are used the process is sometimes called brazing and the solder is then called spelter; a common composition for spelter is copper 50 per cent, zinc 50 per cent, but up to 1.0 per

cent of silver is sometimes included. Another hard solder is that known as silver solder; this consists of 10 per cent nickel, 40-50 per cent zinc, the balance copper. The flux commonly used for brazing and silver soldering is powdered borax.

LOW MELTING POINT ALLOYS

Alloys which melt at low temperatures, ranging from 60° up to 200°C., are of great use for certain purposes and numerous alloys have been developed. One of the oldest and most used is Wood's metal which melts at 60.5°C. It consists

of bismuth 50, lead 25, tin 12½, cadmium 12½ per cent. Another is Rose's metal which is the same as Wood's, except that the cadmium is replaced by tin; it melts at 93.7°C. Cerromatrix, an alloy developed by the Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation, has the composition, bismuth 48 per cent, lead 28.5 per cent, tin 14½ per cent, and antimony 9.0 per cent. It melts over the range of temperature 102.5°-227°C. and expands on solidification. Among other uses it is used for setting press-tool punches into their holders.

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—PLASTIC AS PROTECTIVE COATINGS.

AMP atmospheric conditions affect the efficiency of all electrical and apparatus very seriously, and adequate steps have to be taken to prevent moisture condensing on, or being absorbed by, the insulating material employed. This is particularly important with regard to close wound coils such as are used in transformers and chokes.

The wire used for low frequency coils and chokes is usually enamelled, and for high frequency components the wire is coated with silk, cotton, or both. Enamel is moisture resistant, but it is not always possible to use it alone because it can be attacked by chemical fumes and solvents, but is also liable to be cracked or crazed by the stresses set up in the coil winding operations. Silk and cotton, although good insulators when perfectly dry, are highly absorbent. Also, moisture coming between the layers of wire, and adjacent turns of the winding, can be quite easily trapped and eventually absorbed by the insulating medium. Often this is the cause of corrosion on the iron stampings and for the core.

To obviate the dangers which arise when moisture is allowed to condensate and chemical fumes are allowed to penetrate into such windings, it has become necessary to completely impregnate the whole coil with a suitable insulating and moisture resistant varnish or compound.

To meet modern requirements such compounds, apart from being good insulators, are capable of withstanding the potential differences existing between separate turns of the winding, must also be stable over a wide temperature range. They should not soften at temperatures up to 100°C., and should not become brittle or break up at temperatures as low as 40°C.

Nevertheless, in order that impregnating can be carried out efficiently, and to ensure that the compound reaches all the small spaces right inside the coil, it must flow freely at a temperature below that which is likely to damage the wire covering. It is desirable that it has a very marked flow point, so that a minimum temperature change will transform it from the solid state into a free running liquid. When it re-sets the compound should be impervious to moisture penetration, and unaffected by temperature changes within the range stated.

When low frequency coils are being dealt with, the only electrical requirements are high dielectric strength and good insulation resistance, but in high frequency circuits compounds with a low-loss factor must be used, as otherwise the impregnating medium will constitute a leakage path for high frequency currents.

TYPES OF COMPOUNDS AVAILABLE

Research to produce the ideal compound has gone on for many years, and at present numerous types are available. These may be broadly classified under three headings:—

Waxes, air-drying varnishes containing natural drying oils and resins, and varnishes with a synthetic-resin base, in a solvent, which is dried off by evaporation and heat polymerization.

All three types are widely used, but the following points should be noted.

Waxes at present available are not very satisfactory over a wide temperature range, and do not offer the same degree of mechanical protection as the varnishes.

Air drying varnishes contain solvents which dry off upon exposure to air. If it were possible to ensure that these solvents

are completely dried off, such varnishes would offer excellent protection, but great care must be taken to ensure that quantities of the solvent are not trapped inside the coil. It is quite easy for this to happen because after the coils have been dipped the varnish on the outside will dry first and the drying process will continue inwards. There is, therefore, no way of escape for the solvent from the varnish which has penetrated right inside the coil. It is recognised that it may be impossible to guarantee that no solvent has been trapped in this manner, and the modern tendency is for varnishes to be mixed with solvents which have no deleterious effect on the enamel or cotton covering of the wire.

The synthetic-resin varnishes, which are used far more extensively than any other type, also suffer from the disadvantage of possessing solvents which must be dried off completely, but they are not dependent on air oxidization as a hardening and drying process. A coil dipped in a synthetic-resin of the thermo-setting type is subjected to a heating cycle similar to that applied to a compound for moulding purposes, and the chemical action which takes place is also similar. It has been proved to be much easier to ensure that a synthetic-resin varnished coil is dried off, right through to the core, than one dipped in an air-drying varnish of the ordinary type. In all cases, however, the depth of winding is the governing factor.

The adoption of high frequency heating has also helped in this respect. When this method of heating is applied, heat is generated uniformly throughout the coil, consequently the inner layers of varnish dry off and the solvent is released before the outer layers have hardened.

To the same extent, as it is essential to avoid trapping solvents from the impregnating compounds, so it is equally as

important to be sure that no moisture trapped inside the coil after the impregnating process is completed. It has therefore, become standard practice to pre-heat the coils and carry out the dipping process in a vacuum. A typical cycle of operations for impregnating a coil in synthetic-resin varnish is described below

IMPREGNATING PROCESS

The coils are first dried thoroughly in an oven or current of hot air at a minimum of 110°C . for anything from two to twenty hours, according to size. They are then transferred to the impregnation plant, and a vacuum is maintained in the tank for not less than 45 minutes. Coil varnish is admitted until the coil is covered.

The next step is to re-admit air and compress it to between 60 and 80 lbs per sq. inch, under which conditions the coils are left for a period, the duration depending on the size of the coil. This may vary between thirty minutes and one hour. The varnish is then drawn off and the coils are left to drain. They are then transferred to a hot vacuum tank where a temperature of between 70°C and 80°C is maintained for a few hours, and a circulating atmosphere is maintained through a solvent condenser. This is to drive off the solvents. After this, the temperature is raised to "cure" the resin.

Tests for insulation resistance are then made. The figure usually required is 100 megohms between coils, but a minimum figure of 25 megohms is permissible in many applications. If the core is fitted before impregnating, the same insulation resistance is required between the coils and the core.

DIP COATING

It has been proved that one application of the impregnant is not enough to enable the insulation resistance figure to be main-

ned up to the standard in first grade work, such as is suitable for tropical use, and, therefore, a second application is called for. This is carried out in much the same manner.

This second coat does not provide as good protection as a dip coat of a more solid compound. Most manufacturers have adopted the dip coat as standard practice.

A good dip coating material should be stable over a range of temperature from plus 70°C. to 40°C. and must also be resistant to moisture and man-handling. In addition its heat dissemination properties must be such that it does not shut in the heat which may be generated in the transformer or choke. This is important, because the dip coat is usually thick and covers the coil completely.

There are various dip-coating compounds available, most of them of the emulsion type, and the process is a simple one of dipping the pre-heated coil in the molten compound or solution, care being taken to prevent any air being trapped during the dipping process.

It is most important that a dip coat should adhere to the surfaces which it has developed, and that no expansion or shrinkage which would cause it to break away from these surfaces should take place with changes of temperature or over a period of ageing. If such break-aways do occur, a moisture trap between the outer surface of the coil and the inner lining of the compound is created. It is equally as important to ensure that no holes exist in the coating, and that the lead-out wires from the coil bobbin are clamped securely so that vibration does not cause these wires to oscillate in the future, thereby setting up a cracked surface on the latter material. Yet another important point to note is that the sleeving used to insulate the lead-out

wires should be a very good fit on the wire, and should be sealed to prevent moisture entering between the wire and the inner wall of the sleeving. On no account should a varnished fabric sleeving be used for covering these wires. Fabric sleeving absorbs moisture and acts as a wick, drawing the moisture into the transformer or choke winding.

A transformer or choke treated as above should pass a "tropical test" of the following order.

Exposure to a temperature of 71°C. for 6 hours, followed by a cooling period of 16 hours. Then exposure to a temperature of not less than 60°C. with relative humidity at not less than 95% for 6 hours. The transformer or choke should not be heated prior to this part of the test. In other words, it should be taken straight off the bench and placed in the test chamber which has previously been adjusted to run at these conditions.

For the next part of the test cycle the component should be left in the chamber, and the heat and humidity controls of the latter should be switched off. No air circulation should be permitted. This condition is to be maintained for 16 hours. It is to be expected that heavy condensation will occur during this period, which is intended to simulate the right conditions in a tropical climate. After this 16-hour period the component should be removed from the chamber, the surplus moisture should be wiped off, and a skeleton electrical test should be carried out immediately. Then repeat the above procedure from the stage where the component is exposed to 60°C. and 95% humidity.

The above cycle of tests is designed to accelerate the actual conditions likely to be encountered in service, but other factors play a part in attacking the re-

liability of the component when exposure to actual conditions takes place over a long period. Consequently more stringent test conditions are being laid down which involve exposure to a temperature and humidity cycle of 25°-40°C. at 95% relative humidity for two months or more. This continual exposure to water vapour and condensation very soon breaks down all but the very best of components.

Another recent development is the totally enclosed hermetically sealed type of transformer, for which a metal can, fitted with ceramic bushes as terminal connections, is used. In this type of construction a plastic compound is used as a filling. This compound is injected into the can under pressure, after the transformer or choke assembly has been thoroughly dried and impregnated with varnish.

Components treated in this way will probably give years of reliable service, but naturally the expense is greater than that incurred with other methods of protection, and it has yet to be definitely proved that any criticism of the varnished impregnated and dipped type, which may arise from time, is not really a criticism of the processing carried out on the particular range of components under test, rather than criticism of the basic method and the materials used.

COILS FOR HIGH-FREQUENCY CIRCUITS

Special waxes have been developed for treating coils designed to carry high frequency currents. In addition to possessing all the normally desirable properties, they must also possess a very low loss factor, and a dielectric constant of not more than 4.5 at frequencies up to 20 megacycles.

Surface resistivity should be at least 10^6 megohms per cm^2 . Volume resistivity 10^7 megohms per cm^3 .

The wax should not melt at temperatures below 75°C., and no cracking should occur when the wax is exposed to 40°C.

The wax should be resistant to moisture penetration, and should have no injurious effect on the enamel or lacquer covering of the wire.

A number of such waxes exist and are widely used as protective coatings.

The composition of these waxes varies considerably. Mixtures of paraffin wax, which is obtained from petroleum by distilling processes, chlorinated rubber and chlorinated naphthalenes, are commonly used. Chlorinated naphthalene combines well with many other synthetic and natural waxes, and is used with rubber for improved fire-resistant products, and with other mineral waxes to raise softening temperature.

An important point to note in connection with the uses of waxes in equipment which may be exposed to tropical conditions is that mineral waxes are superior to any of the natural waxes because of their fungicidal properties.

Waxes embodying a chlorinated naphthalene content are far less likely to support the growth of fungus than natural vegetable waxes. Chlorinated naphthalenes have remarkable anti-fungus properties and good electrical properties.

The method of treatment used so far has been simple dipping process, but with the development of injection moulding technique, and the introduction of new materials, which are combinations of waxes and new synthetic resins, like melamine, it is highly probable that in the future all protective coatings will be applied by moulding around the article to be protected a hard, moisture and heat resistant plastic. The more recently developed waxes are hard, and can be applied by adopting an injection moulding technique.

The use of varnishes with low loss properties, such as polystyrene varnishes, also on the increase, although one of the difficulties encountered with such products is that they are difficult to apply satisfactorily on a production basis, and contain solvents which are injurious to many of the wire-coating mediums which are extensively employed.

CONDENSERS AND OTHER COMPONENTS

Where it is intended that they be used in circumstances involving exposure to extremes of temperature and humidity, condensers and other radio components are also dipped or moulded in waxes and other compounds. This sealing is very important having regard to the small capacities involved, and the effect on such capacities of moisture penetration.

For small condensers, for use in high frequency circuits, the practice of moulding the condenser plates and dielectric in ethylene is being extensively adopted. This can be done on small injection moulding machines, the only objection being the softening and deformation temperature of this plastic. Flat section,

block type condensers have been moulded in Bakelite housings for some time, and the tendency is to totally enclose all condensers in a moulded casting. Moisture penetration through the holes provided for the connecting wires or tags often occurs if the seal between the moulding material and the wire is not perfect. To overcome this, special waxes or varnishes are applied to provide an additional protective film.

GENERAL PROTECTIVE COATINGS AND VARNISHES

Synthetic resins are, of course, used in the compounding of protective enamels for metal work used in radio and electrical equipment, and for finishing wooden radio cabinets, etc. They are also used as temporary protective coatings for transit purposes only. Ethyl cellulose is already being used in this way, as a thin film, which is applied by dipping or spraying. When this film sets hard it acts as a protection against moisture and fungus. The coating can be stripped off when transportation is complete and the component is required for use.

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—MANUFACTURE OF NOVELTY LEATHERS

THE range for novelties in fancy leather goods has caused the up-to-date light leather manufacturer to be continuously on the alert to produce novelties in leather manufacturer to be continuously on the alert to produce novelties in leather. These, when made into the many fancy articles made from leather, such as purses, handbags, photograph frames, jewel cases, etc., are intended to catch the public eye.

The following methods will indicate to some extent a few of the processes which may be regarded as typical of the ingenuity which has been exercised in the production of these novelty leathers.

ANTIQUE LEATHERS

This is a leather which is much in fashion for upholstery and fancy purposes. Antique or Spanish leather is imitated on split hides, calf, kips, and also sheepskins.

A common method of producing an antique effect is to take advantage of the use of a waterproofing agent applied to the more prominent portion of the embossed grain of the leather; these agents are commonly called resists. One very common method consists in dyeing, staining, or spraying the leather a brown or other suitable colour, and afterwards embossing with a natural wrinkled cowhide print. To the upper portion of the grain of the printed leather is carefully applied a wax or grease resist: the application being made by hand. The leather is then sprayed or brushed with a soft-haired brush, with a suitable black dyestuff or a solution of iron. The effect is to dye the crevices or the lower portions of the printed grain a brownish black, and have the higher portions where the resist has been applied; the leather produced

thus resembles a piece of cold leather with a worn appearance on the more prominent part of the grain surface. The wax resist is subsequently removed by wiping the dry leather over with a suitable oil solvent, e.g. petrol, trichlorethylene, etc.

A simple method of applying the fatty resist is to make a mixture of equal parts of paraffin wax and hard beef-tallow melting them together and allowing the mixture to set in a suitable shaped vessel, so as to produce a solid block of grease, somewhat similar in size and shape to a pound bar of soap. Application is made to the leather by simply rubbing the solid bar of grease over the grain surface.

The fatty resist may be substituted by either a solution of shellac dissolved in spirit, or a cellulose solution such as is used in finishing. When the solvent evaporates, both these solutions leave behind a transparent film, and it is not necessary, therefore, to remove the resist from the leather after spraying with the black dyestuff solution, and no further treatment of the leather is essential.

A variety of effects are produced upon skins by heavily embossing the goods after dyeing them to some particular shade, and drying them out as if for finishing in the ordinary manner, and then, after softening the skins by buffing them on the table, lightly snuffing off the grain surface of the skins, either by the buffing machine or by hand with a carborundum or emery covered block, so as to remove the high portions of the embossing. The skins may be left either as buffed and finished in the usual way, or they may be topped by brushing or spraying with a solution of dyestuff of another colour, so as to stain those portions of the grain surface that have been considerably lightened in colour or rendered

white by the buffing. The outcome is to produce a foundation colour on the skin with a different colour effect on the portions that have been removed by the buffing. Very tasteful effects are thus produced on calf, East India kips, shoulders or sides.

MARbled LEATHER

Quite a large variety of leather with artistic marbled or mottled appearance produced. Perhaps the oldest method of producing marbled effects is a form of staining with a sponge that has been dipped in a suitable dyestuff solution; the sponge being dabbed over the prepared surface of the leather, leaving an impression of that portion of the sponge surface which has come into contact with the leather. It is usual, to dab the leather with different sponges dipped in various coloured solutions, so as to bring out a mottled coloured effect.

Sometimes the process is varied by discharging the colour from a dyed leather by sponge-dabbing with an agent capable of effecting a discharge. As an example of this, if a leather, stained a dark brown colour by the employment of a dyestuff in conjunction with a weak iron solution, is then spongedabbed with a solution of dilute oxalic acid, this will discharge the iron and leave a marbled effect on a lighter colour ground where the dye has been applied.

It is possible by this somewhat crude and ancient method to produce quite a variety of artistic effects which render the leather particularly suitable for making a number of fancy leather articles.

BATIK MARBLING

This is a pretty marbled effect introduced originally from Austria. This method of leather production, which was fashionable a couple of decades ago, like other products of a novelty character, has

been allowed to go into disuse, but has recently been re-introduced in both the old form and also with improved results.

After the usual processes of preparation and striking-out, the method of treating the leather consists in pleating or puckering it up into folds by hand, and the skin is then dyed in the pleated or puckered condition. Several methods are in use for carrying out the dyeing process.

(1) The skin, after being uniformly pleated, is placed in a small wooden trough or box fitted with a perforated bottom, just sufficiently large to take the skin comfortably in the folded-up condition. The dyeing is done by pouring the dyestuff from a jug or some other convenient vessel over the skin whilst it lies in the trough. The dyeing must, of necessity, be done very rapidly, and in consequence it is advisable to use a basic colour. After a lapse of a few seconds the skin is removed from the box and immediately washed out. On account of the folds into which the skin has been pleated, the dye solution is taken up unevenly; the various tints, however, blend into each other, and the result is a somewhat pleasing effect.

(2) A more recently introduced style of batik marbling, in which an attempt is made to produce a more regular pattern and at the same time a result which resembles a flower design or print, is known as Dahlia or Marguerite marbling. This effect is produced by pleating the leather—usually skiver, thin Persian sheep, or East India goatskin—by pushing the skin at regular intervals through a perforated plate possessing either square, round, or hexagonal holes of varying diameter (according to whether a small or large flower is to be imitated), and then spraying the leather with a suitable dyestuff mixture, whilst it is held in position by the perforated plate or wooden board, through which it has been pushed. The

small pleat occasioned by pushing the leather through the orifice bring about a simulation of flower petals, and some very pretty and tasteful effects can be obtained by this means. Variations of procedure result in different effects.

It is obvious that by pleating or puckering the leather in various ways, and by the use of the spray, considerable variation of different novel effects of this type can be produced, especially when two, three, or more colours are employed. For example, varied effects can be obtained by pleating the skin in different ways, and spraying with one colour from one side of the pleated skin, then spraying with a different colour from the opposite side.

SPRINKLED MARBLING

From time to time there have been placed on the market sprinkled leathers, chiefly for book-binding purposes. A skin that is to be sprinkled is usually dyed a pale shade of brown, and sprinkled with a weak solution of ferrous sulphate. The skin is laid on a slightly inclined table, and the sprinkling is done from a brush—a painter's large sashool being a serviceable brush for the purpose. The brush is dipped into the solution, and then all surplus liquor is well beaten out of it. Holding the brush over the skin with his right hand, the worker strikes it against a stout stick held in his left hand, in this way causing a fine spray of the iron solution to fall upon the skin. By continually moving the brush and continually striking the spray is evenly distributed over the skin. The application may be varied by spraying the dye or iron solution on to the leather by means of either a hand-spray of the scent spray type, or by a pressure-spraying machine.

A variety of coloured effects can be produced in this way, employing coal-tar colours and sprinkling with two, three, or more colours.

BRONZED LEATHER

For fancy purposes, and for children's slippers and ladies evening shoes in particular, there is a demand for leather having a metallic-bronze surface. The bronze effect is brought about by accentuating the natural tendency to bronze common to many basic colours.

In order to produce a full bronze effect, it is necessary to apply the dye to the leather in a very concentrated solution, dissolving the dye in methyl spirit, and then applying the solution to the leather, as in ordinary staining, with a sponge, brush, or by spraying.

Those dyes which have the greatest tendency to bronze when used in ordinary dyeing or staining are the most suitable for obtaining the bronze effect; the most common of these being Magenta and Safranine, which produce a greenish-bronze. Methyl violet produces a yellowish-green lustre. Methylene blue gives a copper-coloured bronze, and Bismark brown a golden-bronze.

It is advisable in the case of leather that is to be bronzed, first to stain or dye the leather a dark colour. A black dye, blue, or violet dyed leather is the most suitable to work upon for the bronze effect.

A very strong dye-solution is necessary in order to obtain the desired intensity of bronziness. The bronze thus produced on the surface of the leather is loose in its very nature, and unless it is fixed is easily rubbed off. The fixation of the colour is usually achieved by the addition of shellac to the methyl spirit mixture, or by the application of a waterproof finish to the leather after bronzing—as, for example, a cellulose or shellac finish.

For bronze effects the following recipes may be taken as typical:—

GREEN BRONZE

Magenta	12 ozs.
Sudanine	3 ozs.
Ruby Shellac	10 ozs.
Methylated Spirit	1 gallon

COPPER BRONZE

Methylene Blue	10 ozs.
Dark Brown	2 ozs.
Shellac	10 ozs.
Methylated Spirit	1 gallon

The mixtures should each be placed in a bottle, and kept in a warm room until the ingredients are completely dissolved the bottle being occasionally shaken.

GOLD AND SILVER LEATHER

There is an occasional demand for gold and silver leather for certain purposes, such as shoe uppers for ladies' evening dress shoes, theatrical purposes, and there is also a limited employment of gold-embossed leather in the fancy leather goods industry and for decorating purposes, bookbinding, etc.

For the very highest quality gold and silver leathers, actual gold and silver are employed; for commoner class leathers, bronze powders are used. The leather to be decorated is usually highgrade material such as glaze kid in the case of shoe uppers, and East India sheep or goat or red roan leather for the cheaper material.

Gold and silver kid is finished by the application of beaten gold or silver leaf, as to that which is employed for the highest quality gilding and decorating purposes. The leather to be decorated is dyed generally a dark colour, dried by staking; the utmost care being taken to eliminate the maximum amount of moisture from the leather by straining and drying at a high temperature. The leather is then sized with gold size, usually by lightly snuff-buffing, and the gold or silver leaf is applied by means of a flat

camel hair brush, in exactly the same way as the gilder applies the leaf to picture frames, etc. The leather is finally sized with a transparent shellac or cellulose varnish after drying.

The advantage of gold and silver when applied in leaf form is that it is practically unaffected by atmospheric influences in wear, whereas the cheaper product the bronze powder is liable to considerable discolouration within a very short period of time.

APPLICATION OF BRONZE POWDERS

As stated above, bronze powder is a much cheaper substitute for actual gold or silver. The bronze powders generally used are aluminium powder for silver bronze, and ordinary gold bronze powder for gold effects. The latter is a copper alloy, and in consequence of this and the liability of this material to tarnish by contact with grease, and also the fact that with surplus tannin the copper undergoes decomposition and conversion into copper acetate, which is green salt, the utmost care is necessary in the preparation of the leather before employment of these powders, with a view to eliminating the occurrence of this defect. The leather should be thoroughly washed free from surplus tannin, and should preferably have been degreased by employment of the ordinary benzine method of degreasing. No oils or fats, with the possible exception of mineral oil, should be employed for the purpose of lubricating or fatliquoring the leather, and if required to dye the leather a ground colour, basic dyestuffs should be used for preference, without the use of acetic or other organic acid. It is also an advisable precaution that the goods should be thoroughly well washed after dyeing, so as to remove any surplus dye; a much more efficient washing being necessary than after the ordinary dyeing process.

The leather is then dried, and the decoration with the "silver" or bronze powder is best done by spraying the leather with a celluloid varnish made by dissolving celluloid clippings in amyl acetate and alcohol; the powder being mixed to the required consistency into this cellulose vehicle, so as to make a suitable paint which can be satisfactorily sprayed on to the surface of the leather.

It is advisable, after giving a good coating of the bronzing fluid, to allow the leather to become thoroughly dry, drying at a comparatively high temperature, so as to remove the last traces of the cellulose

solvent, and then attach the bronze me firmly to the leather by spraying over with a shellac or clear cellulose varnish.

The addition of hygroscopic material like glycerine to the cellulose or shellac varnish should not be made, and the customary addition of castor oil, with a view to producing a greater amount of pliability should also be omitted, especially in the case of gold or copper bronze. This in a very short time will bring about the resulting conversion of the golden hue into a dull green colour.

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—Removal of Stains from Fabrics.

FABRICS used in our daily life are made from materials such as cotton, silk, wool, artificial silk. These fabrics often become stained with substances such as oil, grease, ghee, fats, fruit juice, tea, coffee, iron rust, paint, varnish, iodine, mildew, perfume, etc. These stains can be removed without damaging the fabric. But there are some stains which cannot be removed and are, therefore, left alone. Ordinary stains such as those stated above can be removed by the application of the correct reagent, and this depends upon ascertaining the cause causing the stain and the material from which the fabric is made. If the fabric is dyed it is also necessary to know how to remove the stain without removing the colour of the dyed fabric, whether the dye used is fast or fugitive. Some reagents which can be safely used in removing a particular stain from a certain fabric, if applied on silk or wool, damage the cloth. Then again it must be borne in mind that fresh stains can be more easily removed than old stains and, therefore, efforts to remove the stain should be made as early as possible. In some cases, the cloth should be washed in hot soap solution immediately on discovering the stain. Several stains can be removed easily by the mere application of a soap solution, or by holding the cloth on an empty vessel and pouring of hot water from a kettle on the stained spot.

If the cause of the stain is not known and cannot be identified then much difficulty will be experienced in selecting the correct reagent for removing the stain. In such cases, it is necessary to carry out several trials with different reagents which are suitable for the nature of the fabric and the material from which the fabric is made.

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If the cause of the stain is not known, it is necessary to conduct a simple test. Some fibres may be taken out from the fabric and held in the hand and the gentle flame of a match applied to them. Cotton and artificial silk will burn rapidly, giving a smell of burning paper and leaving a little ash. Wool and silk will, on the other hand, burn rather slowly, emitting a disagreeable smell of burning feather, and have a black bead at the end. If the fabric is dyed, trials will have to be carried out with different reagents or hot soap solution on a corner of the fabric to ascertain whether the colour is fast or fugitive. In some cases, it will be found that the stain cannot be removed without removing the colour of the cloth at the same time.

Stains are removed by different methods of treatment such as solvent, chemical and absorption.

SOLVENT METHOD

In this method the stain is dissolved so that it may pass from the fabric on to a blotting paper placed underneath the fabric. The stain is absorbed by the blotting paper and the solvent in the fabric evaporates. Before proceeding to remove the stain, the portion of the fabric which is stained should be washed in hot soap solution in preferably a solution of Igepon T Soap. The fabric should then be dried.

Now a pad consisting of a few sheets of blotting paper, is placed on the table and the cloth containing the stain laid on the top of the blotting paper. A small quantity of the reagent is poured in a small cup. A clean cotton muslin rag is then dipped in the reagent, the excess quantity squeezed and the rag pressed gently on the stain from the outer side of the stain to the centre. The solvent will carry the stain into the blotting paper. At every

application of the solvent, a clean rag and a fresh blotting pad should be used. The excessive use of reagent at every application should be avoided, in order to prevent the formation of a ring around the stain. The portion of the cloth stained may finally be washed in cold water. In removing stains, the rag dipped in the reagent should be pressed gently but not rubbed on the fabric, as it will cause the dissolved stain to spread out on the fabric. In some cases more than one solvent will have to be applied in succession in order to remove the stain. As many of the solvents are inflammable, they should be kept at a safe distance from any flame.

CHEMICAL METHOD

In this method, the stain is decomposed or bleached and the chemical removed by washing. Before proceeding to remove the stain, the portion of the fabric which is stained should be washed with hot soap solution. The solution of the chemicals is first poured in a small cup. A white cloth is placed on a table, and the fabric containing the stain laid on the cloth. A clean cotton muslin rag is then dipped in the solution and the rag pressed gently on the stain. After the stain has been removed, the fabric is washed in cold water to remove the chemical.

ABSORPTION METHOD

This method is applicable only in the case of grease and lubricating oil stains. As magnesium carbonate has the property of absorbing oil and grease, it is rubbed on the stain and left until the oil is absorbed, and then brushed off. For removing old stains, powdered magnesium carbonate is mixed with benzol (not petrol) and then the paste is rubbed on the spot and allowed to dry and brushed off. This is useful on heavy garments such as coats.

HOT APPLICATION

This method is applicable in the case of stain produced by rain-water on

silk fabrics. A white cloth is laid on the table, and the stained fabric is placed over it. A wet cloth is then placed on the stained cloth, and a dry cloth is placed over it. A hot iron is pressed on the cloth in order to remove the stain.

1. Nature of stain—Milk, butter, ghee, vegetable and animal oil and fats.

Cloth of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk. Reagent to be used—Carbon tetra chloride. Method to be adopted—Solvent.

2. Nature of Stain—Tea, Coffee, Cocoa, Chocolate, Fruit juice, wine and beer.

(a) Class of fabric—White cotton and artificial silk. Reagent to be used—Sodium hypochlorite solution (1 oz. of sodium hypochlorite in 10 oz. of water). Method adopted—Chemical.

(b) Class of fabric—White silk, wool and coloured cotton and coloured artificial silk. Reagents to be used—Ammonia solution (1 oz. ammonia in 5 oz. water) followed by hydrogen peroxide (12 vol strength).

(c) Class of fabric—Coloured silk and wool. Reagents to be used—Ammonia solution (1 oz. ammonia in 5 oz. water). Method adopted—Chemical.

3. Nature of stain—Ink and rust.

(a) Class of fabric—White cotton and artificial silk. Reagents to be used—Hydroxylic acid solution ($\frac{1}{4}$ oz Oxalic acid in 16 oz. of water) followed by sodium hypochlorite.

rite solution (1 oz. in 10 oz. of water).

Method adopted—Chemical.

- (b) Class of fabric—Coloured cloth and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Hydrochloric acid (1 oz. acid in 15 oz. water) followed by washing and then treatment with ammonia (1 oz. ammonia in 5 oz. water).

Method adopted—Chemical.

- (c) Class of fabric—White silk and wool.

Reagent to be used—Warm oxalic acid solution ($\frac{1}{2}$ oz. oxalic acid in 16 oz. water) followed by washing and then treatment with ammonia (1 oz. ammonia in 5 oz. water).

Method adopted—Chemical.

1. Nature of stain—Iodine.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Sodium thiosulphate solution (1 oz. thiosulphate in 5 oz. water).

Method adopted—Chemical.

2. Nature of stain—Grease, tar and wax.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Coconut oil followed by hot soap washing and then treatment with carbon tetrachloride.

Method adopted—Solvent.

Nature of Stain—Paint and varnish.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—(1) Methylated spirit followed by turpentine and soap washing finally after drying.

- (2) Carbon tetrachloride.

- (3) Mixture of acetone and amylacetate (1 oz. acetone and 1 loz. of amylacetate).

7. Nature of stain—Blood.

- (1) Class of fabric—White cotton and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Sodium hypochlorite solution (1 oz. in 10 oz. of water).

- (2) Class of fabric—Wool and silk and coloured cotton and artificial silk.

Reagents to be used—Acetic acid (2 oz. concentrated acetic acid, $\frac{1}{4}$ oz. Common salt in 19 oz. water) followed by washing and treatment with ammonia (1 oz. of ammonia in 5 oz. water).

Method adopted—Chemical.

8. Nature of stain—Mildew.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Hydrochloric acid (1 oz. in 15 oz. water) followed by wash and treatment with hydrogen peroxide (12 vols. strength).

Method adopted—Chemical.

9. Nature of stain—Perfume.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagents to be used—Ammonia (1 oz. in 5 oz. water) and oxalic acid in 16 oz. water), alternately.

Method adopted—Chemical.

10. Nature of stain—Perspiration.

Class of fabric—Cotton, silk, wool and artificial silk.

Reagent to be used—Hydrogen peroxide (12 vols. strength).

Method adopted—Chemical.

In preparing hypochlorite solution take $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of soda ash and dissolve it in 5 oz. of cold water. Then take 2 oz. of bleach-

ing powder (containing 35 p. c. available chlorine) and dissolve in it 15 oz. of cold water. Mix the two solutions, stir and have it undisturbed for 20 minutes. The clear solution is sodium hypochlorite and this should be poured into another vessel without disturbing the sediment. As the sodium hypochlorite solution is not stable, it should be prepared fresh every time.

In conclusion it is not out of place to mention the whole list of chemicals to be stored in carrying out this business.

Methylated spirit, acetone, amyl acetate, carbon tetrachloride, turpentine, coconut oil, soda ash, liquor ammonia, (600 vols.), bleaching powder, acetic acid, oxalic acid, hydrochloric acid, sodium thiosulphate.

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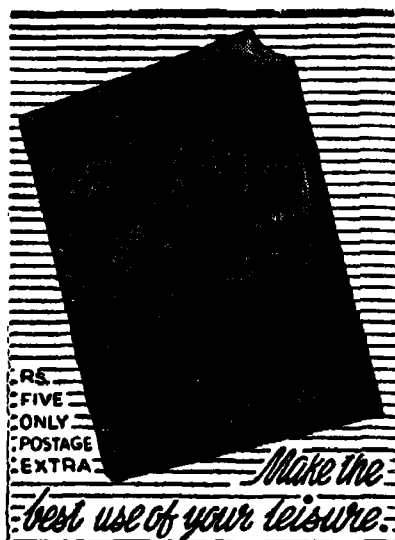
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—BENGAL HOSIERY INDUSTRY

The first hosiery factory in Bengal was started in the 1890 at Kidderpore in the Municipal Wards of Calcutta, and by the establishment of a bigger one in the year 1892, at the same place. A full contingent of British machinery and British experts at the initiative and the management of some of the enterprising citizens. During its life of the past 61 (sixty one) years the industry has passed through many vicissitudes. While on the one hand it undoubtedly received impetus for progress as a result of events like (a) political upheavals in the country followed by a "Swadeshi" movement (b) two world wars and (c) protective duties against foreign imports taken by Government, it has on the other hand suffered severe set backs, which have shaken the very foundations of the industry and have swept away many factories from their existence. Some of the adverse factors were (a) change in world conditions, which prevented operation of its numerous essential plants, etc. (b) long period of competition with the cheap and spurious imports and (c) occasional trade depressions caused by various causes. It was under the shadow of the unfair competition from Japan in the year 1923 that this Association took its

birth. Since its inception it has naturally identified its existence with that of the industry and plunged headlong in the act of forging its destiny. But for the two outstanding achievements the industry would not be what it is to day. Through the initiative of The Hosiery Manufacturers Association and its sustained efforts for years by various deputations and representations to the Government of India and the Tariff Boards of 1926, 1932 and 1935 the necessity of assistance to the industry was impressed on the Government, which adopted effective measures of protection by two successive legislations in 1934 and one in 1935. Then again during the last great war, when in the name of all-out war efforts, the then India Government practically stopped the supply of yarn to the industry for civil purposes, the Association undertook Government orders and kept working throughout the war period most of the medium-sized factories under its membership, which would otherwise have closed down for want of raw materials.

The position of the industry in West Bengal at a glance during the last twelve years is given below. There being no authentic statistical records available the following figures have been worked out on the informations collected privately as an workable basis:—

PROBLEMS

	1938	1949.	1950.
Complete or Composite factories	250	314	430
Knitting machines installed	1,500	2,000	3,000
Hosiery sewing factories	Not ascertained	500	500
Block factories worked by manual labour	150	250	250
Investment in Block Capital	Not ascertained	Rs. 2 Crores	3 Crores
Total capital outlay	" "	Rs. 6 "	7 "
Annual production capacity of the plant installed—Quantity (in lbs.)	" "	168 Lakhs	252 Lakhs
—Value (in Rs.)	" "	756 "	1,134 "

8. Consumption of finished products in West Bengal—				
(a) Quantity (in lbs.)	18	18		
(b) Value	81	81		
9. Exportable surplus of finished goods				
(a) Quantity (in lbs.)	150	234		
(b) Value (in Rs.)	675	1,050		
10. Workmen employed	6,000	10,000		
11. Wages paid per month	Not ascertained	7½	7½	

In dealing with the problems of the industry it would be necessary to bear in mind some of its inherent difficulties owing to its being a typical medium scale industry—unlike cottage industries, where simple and crude machineries and equipments are employed. This industry requires various types of complicated machines requiring precise adjustments. Its raw materials are not primary products as are easily procureable but are themselves the products of some big scale industries viz, yarn, sewing thread, bleaching chemicals, starch, dyestuffs, etc. Some of these materials including needles and sinkers are imported from abroad and are thus subject to occasional short supply and speculative prices. Like the big-scale industries it requires highly technical services for erection and maintenance of its machinery but most of the units being very small in size cannot afford to maintain their own technical staff. Consequently the entrepreneur, who have to look after all the departments of their factories personally viz, management, supervision, finance, technical service, dyeing and bleaching and marketing, have invariably to work under constant and heavy strain.

These factories therefore are very weak in their power of resistance and are liable to succumb easily to any strong extraneous forces of adverse circumstances. The services of a strong responsive and active Association are certainly helpful to them but for their proper maintenance and development the fostering care of a national Government is essential.

CONTROL

The present problems of the industry

have been mainly created by the shortage of its raw materials and the controls imposed on it. The committee is not opposed to the principle of control. Compulsory apportionment of available raw material among the factories on equitable basis unavoidable so long as its scarcity continues. But our grievances are with regard to the administration of the control both in respect of Procurement and Distribution.

PROCUREMENT

As the procurement of yarn administered by the Central Government the Association have been negotiating along with the Industries Ministry and particularly with the Textile Commission for increasing the monthly quota of cotton yarn for West Bengal. They have also pleaded their inability to increase the supply on the ground of shortage of cotton. The Association proposes that the curtailment in the supply of raw material due to shortage of cotton, in respect of sections of the Indian Textile Industries should be in equal proportion as compared with their normal consumption during particular period when the problem of scarcity of cotton did not appear.

DISTRIBUTION

It is not difficult to imagine how the continued short supply of raw material, almost on a starvation level, is seriously affecting the industry. It is proving too much for the management of the small factories to carry on any longer under the present distressing conditions in addition to their inherent difficulties explained above.

The necessity for a more tender and considerate handling of the factories by Government is becoming more and more essential. Every care should be taken to avoid such steps as would involve suspension of issue of yarn either on account of protracted inspection or execution or on the ground of some technical lapses on the part of some factory or other. Rigid pursuit of the letters of the order or enforcement of strictness of discipline without being tempered with sensible leniency may prove fatal to the factories. Any rule or order, affecting long practices in the trade, should be evolved. Factories failing to submit a monthly Application cum Declaration by the 15th of any month should not

be penalised by the cancellation of their full quota for the month.

The permits for monthly quotas have seldom been issued regularly. The intervals sometimes extend to 6 or 7 weeks, resulting in longer idleness for the factories. Shortage in the allotment, due to mistake in inspection reports or other reasons, is not often restored for the period. Many important letters affecting the vital interest of some factories remain unanswered for a long time obviously due to indecision. The measures taken by the Directorate in the matter of distribution of Egyptian yarn during the previous 3 allotments resulted in huge accumulation and maldistribution of the yarn.

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-PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPES

COUGH BALSAM

Oil of anise	15 min.
Liquid extract of liquorice	1½ fl. oz.
Syrup tolu	10 fl. oz.
Simple syrup to make	1 pint.

PHOTOGRAPHER'S OINTMENT

The following protects the hands from photographic chemicals:-

Best castile soap, in fine shavings	1 ounce.
Water	1 "
Wax	1 "
Ammonia	45 minims.
Lanolin	1 ounce.

The soap is dissolved in the water heated for that purpose, the wax mixed in with much stirring, and, when all is in solution, the ammonia is added. When clear, the lanolin is put in, and then, if the mixture is very thick, water is added until the whole has the consistency of honey. Keep in a covered stoneware jar. The hands should be first washed with ordinary soap, and then, while the leather is still on them, a bit of the mixture about the size of a hazel nut is rubbed in until all is absorbed, and the hands are dry. At the close of the work, the film of wax is washed off in warm water and a little lanolin rubbed into the hands.

SORE THROAT TABLETS

Potassium Chlorate	10 grains.
Sugar	80 "
Borax	8 "
Eucalyptol	0.125 "
Thymol	0.500 "
Menthol	0.025 "

Add glycerin and distilled water to make a paste. Mould and dry. The above composition enough for 200 tablets.

ANTI-ACID STOMACH TABLETS

Sugar	1 lb.
Calcium Carbonate	½ "
Peppermint essence	2 drams.

Mix sugar and carbonate with 1½ pints of water and boil until mass will set on a cold spoon. Cool and add 2 drams of essence of Peppermint while stirring is still possible. Spread thin over a flat pan and cut into ¼ inch cubes.

ANALGESIC BALM LINIMENT

Methyl salicylate	30 parts.
Menthol	10 "
Saponin	½ part.
Lanolin	32½ parts.
Chloroform	5 "
Water	100 "

Melt the lanolin and incorporate in it methyl salicylate. Remove from the stove heat and add the menthol dissolved in chloroform. Finally mix the saponin water. Stir thoroughly and then put in pots.

SULPHATHIAZOLE OINTMENT

Anhydrous lanolin	47.5 "
Sulphathiazole, finely divided	5 "
Vanishing cream or potassium stearate	47.5 "

Melt the lanolin and add the cream slowly with adequate heating, to produce a good fluffy cream. Add the finely divided sulphathiazole and continue heating until a uniform mixture is obtained. The mixture is readily emulsified, add four drops ethanalamine and continue heating.

This ointment is particularly adapted for various skin irritations, eczema, and other skin diseases.

RINGWORM OINTMENT

Salicylic acid	2 "
Creosote	1 "
Resorcin	1 "
Benzoated lard	4 "

Triturate the ingredients in a mortar and then pack in pots.

AGNIMUKA CHURNA

Asafoetida	1 "
Acorus calamus	2 "
Long papper	3 "
Ginger	4 "
Ajowan	5 "
Chebulic myrobalan	6 "
Plumbago root (Chitramula)	7 "

Reduce the ingredients into powder and pass through a cloth.

Dose:- 20 to 40 grains with whey.

PIMPLE LOTION

Crystallised alum	1 "
Sodium chloride	1 "
Sublimed sulphur	1 "
Sugar candy	2 "
Spermaceti	2 "
Elder-flower water	3 "
Distilled water	3 "
Brandy	10 "

Reduce all the solids into fine powder and rub up with the mixed liquids. This is to be applied at intervals during the day on linen rags, which should frequently be changed. It is an effectual and quick remedy for eruptions on the face.

—Recipes for Small Manufacturers

CAMPHOR ICE

Camphor ice contains 10 to 25 per cent. of camphor, which is added to the melted fats in which they have dissolved. It is then poured into moulds and the blocks wrapped in tin foil.

Camphor powder	150	parts.
Ceresine, white	50	"
Hard paraffin	250	"
Soft paraffin, white	500	"

WOOD LACQUERS

Amylacetate	$\frac{1}{2}$	gallon.
Ethyl acetate	1	"
Ethyl alcohol	$\frac{1}{2}$	"
Ethanol	$1\frac{1}{2}$	gallons.
Soluble solution spirit	$\frac{1}{2}$	gallon.
Nitrocellulose	$6\frac{1}{2}$	lbs.
Ethyl phthalate	$\frac{1}{2}$	lb.

Mix in a stoppered vessel and keep aside to dry.

MUKHBILAS

Coriander seed	1	tola.
Aniseed	1	"
Fenyle	1	"
Nutmeg	1	"
Aravan	1	"
Cotton	1	"
Seeds of cardamom major	1	"
Seeds of cardamom minor	1	"
Cloves	1	"
Dried rose petals	1	"
Chua	1	"
Camphor	1	"

Take one tola each of the ingredients except the last two and soak them in good rose water 12 hours. Then bray them together to a fine form and incorporate chua and camphor.

LACQUER FOR SHOE HEELS

Ethyl acetate	12	parts.
Acetone	1152	"
Ethanol	14	"
Ethyl alcohol	3	"
Industrial spirit	7	"
Cellulose	10	"

Mix in a stoppered bottle.

POLISHING CLOTH

Salicylic acid	1	lb.
Carbonic acid	$\frac{1}{2}$	oz.
Camphene	1	"

Mix together, remove from fire and add 100 parts of methyl salicylate or terpineol, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of cotton flannel into desired size, dip in mixture till thoroughly saturated, then run through a tight wringer. Fold and wrap in paper.

LEMON SQUASH

Lemon squash is made with the expressed juice of lemons to which suitable amounts of sugar and water are added; occasionally a little lemon oil is added to flavour. The lemon juice for this purpose is obtainable packed or cloudy, the cloudiness being due to the presence of pulp which floats in the liquid.

Orange squash is made in the same way from expressed juice of orange.

LEMON SYRUP

It is made with tincture of sweet orange peel and oil of orange.

Oil of lemon	2	minims
Alcohol (90%)	$\frac{1}{2}$	oz.
Dissolve and add kieselsguhr (or kaolin)	1	dr.
Water	1	oz.

Allow to stand a day or two shaking occasionally; filter and add to a syrup made as follows:—

Sugar	12	oz.
Citric acid	$1\frac{1}{2}$	dr.
Water	7	oz.

The oil of lemon and alcohol may be replaced by 1 oz. of tincture of fresh lemon peel.

II

Oil of lemon	2	dr.
Otto of rose	2	m.
Alcohol (90%)	2	oz.
Citric acid	3	"
Syrup	2	gal.

Prepare as above.

SILVERING POWDER

Silver chloride	1	tola.
Common salt	$1\frac{1}{2}$	tolas.
Washing soda	3	"
White chalk powder	$2\frac{1}{2}$	"

Powder each separately and weigh in a well dry condition and mix well the whole and pack it in 1 oz. size screw top or wide-mouthed cork bottle.

For silvering the articles made of brass, copper, German silver, etc., first clean them well with chalk powder and wash with clean water. After cleaning the article from dirt and traces apply this silvering powder with a small piece of clean cotton rag when the article is wet. Rub briskly all over the place with this powder for some time and wash with water. Two or three coats in this way will give a good deposit of silver on the articles. To get cleaner and brighter surface on the article it must be cleaned thoroughly before applying this powder.

-IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

ONE MINUTE ALLOY ANALYSIS

An automatic photo electric instrument capable of obtaining the complete chemical analysis of an aluminium alloy in less than one minute, and producing a written analytical report in duplicate, was described recently by Mr. J. R. Churchill, of the Aluminium Company of America. The instrument, called a uantometer, is able to provide a true control analysis, in as much as analysis can be performed, while the aluminium is being processed, and concentrational adjustments can be made immediately if the product does not meet specifications. Where high uniformity of product is required to meet the exacting needs of such customers as the aircraft industry, the automatic instrument produces faster, less expensive and more reliable test results than obtained by laboratory technicians.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

NEW U. S. TINPLATING TECHNIQUE

Savings of up to 50 per cent. in the use of tin are claimed for a new tinplating technique recently perfected by the Weirton Steel Company, West Virginia. Under methods in general use, tinplate receives the same weight of coating on both sides. In the weirton process one side is coated sufficiently to protect the contents of the can, while the other side is treated with only the amount of tin necessary to protect the exterior from exposure.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

NEW SULPHUR RECOVERY PROCESS

Recovery of elemental acid grade sulphur from surface deposits by a new refining process is reported by the Chemical Construction Corporation, New York, a subsidiary of the American Cyanamide Company.

The method involves the grinding of native sulphur bearing ores to below 28 mesh size and suspending the finest in water. The mixture is then heated to above the melting point of sulphur to separate it from the gangue. After cooling, the final mix is subjected to froth flotation. Sulphur is floated off with the froth and filtration yields a product ready for acid manufacture. Relatively simple equipment comparable with the well-known French process is employed and an effective sulphur recovery of 90 per cent. or more is claimed.

Should Chemical Construction Corporation's new process live up to its preliminary expectations it will spell the utilisation of large surface deposits of sulphur bearing ores throughout the world, and it should prove considerably cheaper than a pyrites acid plant is a sulphuric acid producer.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

VIBRATING TABLE

Containers of all shapes, sizes, and materials can be effectively vibrated with the Koh Vibrating Table.

The table is of all-steel construction. The table top is securely bolted to moulded rubber mountings which isolate it from the base; vibration is not transmitted to the floor of the machine. An unbalanced weight rotating on a small electric motor causes the vibration. The vibrator is secured to the table top by special mountings to eliminate "contact rattle". The surface of the table is slightly dashed to prevent containers sliding off, and is covered with felt to eliminate noise.

—CHEMICAL PROCESS

HOT AIR OVEN

A new type of hot air oven, designed by Electricals Ltd., has just been announced. Difficulty in the past has existed in obtaining very close temperature control but it is claimed that this oven, by reason of its design and construction, virtually eliminates this trouble.

Temperature range of the oven is adjusted to 300°C. and it can be used for any temperature within these limits. Internal measurements are 17 ins. cub.

A thermostat control gives the desired temperature at all parts of the oven to within 1 per cent. with shelves loaded, although the limits are finer than this for any one part. This very close temperature control is obtained by special features the principles of these being a hot air bath surrounding the interior of the oven, in which the air is circulated by a fan. An additional fan agitates the air in the oven interior. The heat insulation is such that the exterior of the oven remains cool at all times.

Due to the unique air bath principle used it is possible to avoid switching the whole batch of heating elements on and off through the thermostat circuit, a system which inevitably gives rise to great fluctuations in the oven temperature. The small wattage controlled by the thermostat plus the extra elements controlled by a rotation rotary switch when required to attain high temperature, provides very small temperature fluctuations.

A warning light to indicate failure of the fan, and a pilot light on the thermostat are fitted on the control panel.

The oven is useful for all laboratory purposes and is ideal, by virtue of its temperature control, for the sterilization of syringes, etc. at 165°C.

—CHEMICAL PROCESS

—FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

ENAMELLING SIGNBOARDS

332 V.A., Madura—Desires to know the process of enamelling signboards.

All enamelled wares receive first a coat of enamel—the fundamental coat, since on this is to be placed the future colours—consisting of a coating of glass. This operation is followed by a coating of white or glazing the ground colour being afterwards laid on the signboard plates, after being levelled or bevelled, and dipped into a bath of phosphoric acid composed of equal parts of acid and water. They are next heated to redness to remove the scale, and cleared in dilute sulphuric acid; then rinsed in cold water well scoured with sand, again rinsed, but in boiling water, and afterwards dried. The enamel mixings are either in the form of a powder or as a paste, the latter for preference. The paste is poured over the plate, or the plate is dipped into the liquid, any surplus being wiped with a cloth. The first or grey coat is fired at 160°C and is afterwards fused at a white heat about 1200°C this is done in a muffle furnace. This first coat is impressed or fused into the body of the plate thus obviating cracking or peeling off. It is allowed to cool slowly and uniformly. The second coat of white is then applied. It must be as liquid as possible, and fused at a lower temperature, about 1050°C so as not to interfere with the first grey coating. The coloured coats are similarly applied. The mixings are thoroughly ground up, well mixed, fused in a suitable crucible, and run into cold water under them brittle and easy to grind. After grinding they are reground very fine. The grindstone is of a special character, so constructed that any particles of iron are prevented from coming into contact with the material being ground, as the iron would cause distinct discoloration. The grey mixing should be kept in solution just liquid enough to pour, a suitable quantity of water being added only when the work is required for work. The white is stored and kept in covered tubes till used. The work must be well protected from dust. The following points to be carefully followed are:—
Thoroughly clean the plates before use. Fuse at such a heat that it may only coat the plate and eat its way into the surface of the plate; this is only done at a white heat, and at a temperature than the white, so that it will not be altered when applying the white. The compositions have the same capacities for expansion and contraction as the metals upon which they are applied; but a most important point is the slow and uniform cooling. The compositions of the various glazes is as follows: The white ground—No. 1: Any kind of glass 49; oxide of lead 47 parts, fused borax 4 parts, 2. Quartz, 67½; borax 22½; enamelling soda 3. 3. Silica 65; borax 14; oxide of lead 4; clay, 2; magnesia 2 No. 4. Any kind of glass 61; red-lead, 22; borax 16; nitre, 1. The white ground—No. 1. Felspar, 33; borax 22½; quartz 16½; oxide of tin, 15; soda 8; fluorspar, 34; saltpetre, 2½.

No. 2 Cullet, 20; lead 52; arsenic, 4½; powdered flint, 15; soda, 4½; nitre 4. No. 3 Silica powder 30; borax 17; oxide of tin, 18, soda, 8½, nitre 7½; white-lead, 5½; magnesia, 4; silica powder 4. For the various shades or colours, the following are used: Blue-silicate of cobalt. Violet—peroxide of manganese. Green oxide of copper, with, if necessary, a little oxide of iron. Naples yellow or orange-red oxide of iron and an antimony preparation mixed to give the desired tint. Red-sulphate of iron and alumina. Brown, black and purple—oxide of iron mixed with a certain proportion of clay. Black-oxides of cobalt, iron and manganese.

RUBBER BALLOONS

13 M.R.I., Jogeshwari—Desires to know a good formula of making rubber balloons.

Toy balloons are made by both straight and coagulating dipping from latex. The latex composition should be adjusted so that the cured film will have low modulus and be free of odour and taste.

Rubber latex 60 p.c.	100.00 lbs.
Zinc oxide	0.50 "
Sulphur	1.00 "
Z. D. C.	0.83 "
Casein sol. 10 p.c.	1.00 "
Organic colour	2 to 3 "

First prepare the casein solution by dissolving 10 parts of casein in 90 parts of ammonia for it. Then take necessary amount of this casein solution and triturate in it the zinc oxide, Z.D.C. and colour. Then incorporate the mixture into the latex. Stir thoroughly. Then allow the bubbles to escape and dip the forms after dipping them in calcium chloride solution (Calcium chloride 10 parts, water 40 parts and methylated spirit 40 parts) Take out the forms slowly and then keep them erect to dry. When dry make a neck by pushing.

ROSIN PLASTER

64 V.Y.S., Bijapur—Wishes to have the formula of preparing rosin adhesive plaster.

To prepare rosin plaster first prepare lead plaster in the following manner:—

Litharge	6 lbs.
Olive oil	1 gallon.
Water	1 quart.

Boil all together on a slow fire, constantly stirring to the consistence of a plaster, adding a little boiling water if nearly the whole of that used in the beginning should be consumed before the end of the process.

Now take 3 lbs. of this lead plaster. Warm it and then to this melted mass and rosin in fine powder, ½ lb. also liquefied by gentle heat and mix.

ARTIFICIAL BEESWAX

106 K.A.K., Bangalore—Wants to have a formula of artificial beeswax.

This is obtained by mixing the following substances, in approximately the proportions stated:—

	Parts by Weight.
Paraffine	45
White Japan vegetable wax	30
Rosin or colophones	10
White pitch	10
Tallow	5
Ceresine, colorant	0.030
Wax perfume	0.100

If desired, the paraffine may be replaced with ozokerite, or by a mixture of vaseline and ozokerite, for the purpose of varying the fusing temperature, or rendering it more advantageous for the various applications designed. The following is the method of preparation: Melt on the boiling water bath, shaking constantly, the paraffine, the Japan wax, the rosins, the pitch, and the tallow. When the fusion is complete, add the colorant and the perfume. When these products are perfectly mingled, remove from the fire, allow the mixture to cool, and run it into suitable moulds. The wax thus obtained may be employed specially for encaustics for furniture and floors, or for purposes where varnish is employed.

RED LEAD

124 A.E.W., Nasik—Wishes to have a good process of manufacturing red lead.

Red lead is prepared on the large scale in a furnace with the floor slightly concave and the roof arched, presenting a general resemblance to a baker's oven. The lead in thin sheets free from iron is placed on the floor, and gradually raised to a red heat, whereby it melts and becomes covered with a pellicle of monoxide, which is removed by means of a long iron scraper, and the pellicles, as they successively form, are scraped off until the whole of the metal has been converted into the monoxide. The product is subjected to further heating (calcination) in presence of air, with occasional stirring, for some time, in order to oxidise any remainder particles of metallic lead; it is thus rendered yellow, and constitutes lead monoxide, or massicot as it is technically called.

This is taken out of the furnace, thrown upon a level pavement, and cooled by being sprinkled with water. It is next reduced to fine powder by trituration and levigation. The paste thus obtained is thrown into a cistern full of water. And then it is stirred by means of a rod. It is then set aside for a few minutes the fine particles of yellow lead monoxide settles at the bottom. The clear water is syphoned off and thrown away. The lead monoxide is taken off and dried in the sun or otherwise. The dried mass is then spread thinly in a number of shallow iron trays (about 12 inches square and about 4 to 5 inches deep). The trays are next placed into another furnace, if the first is to be recharged. The furnace on being filled up with rays is heated nearly to redness (600° to 650°F). When the fire is extinguished and the furnace is

allowed to cool down slowly. The door of the furnace should be kept open, so that the lead monoxide may combine with an additional quantity of oxygen, and become the red oxide. This is taken out, and, after it has passed through a fine wire sieve, it is packed in barrels for the purpose of commerce.

LITHARGE

124 A.E. W., Nasik—Wants to have a process of manufacturing litharge.

Litharge or oxide of lead is obtained perfectly pure by expelling the acid from lead of lead by exposing it to heat in a platinum crucible; or, still better, by adding a little ammonia to a cold solution of nitrate of lead until the liquid becomes faintly alkaline, adding the precipitate with cold water, drying and heating it to moderate redness for 1 hour.

On a commercial scale litharge is manufactured by scraping off the drops that form on the surface of melted lead exposed to a current of air, and heating it to a full red heat to melt out any undecomposed metal. The fused oxide, on cooling, forms a yellow to brownish semicrystalline mass, which readily separates into scales; these, when ground constitute the "powdered litharge" of commerce. The yellow variety is obtained when the metal is only moderately heated. It is usually called massicot.

AGARBATTI

133 R.V., Dinapore Cantt.—Wishes to have a formula of agarbatti and also pan ka masala

Musk	20 gr.
Ambergris	20 "
Powdered benzoin	20 oz.
" camphor	2 "
" cinnamon	2 dr.
" nitre	2 "
" charcoal	4 oz.

Make a thin paste with mucilage of fig or carth. Sticks are then made by dipping and taking out slowly thin wooden or bamboo splintres into this emulsion. Dry in the sun and store for use.

PAN KA MASALA

Coriander seed	1½ tola.
Aniseed	1½ "
Parsley	1 "
Nutmeg	1 "
Ajawan	1½ "
Saffron	½ "
Seeds of cardamom major	1½ "
Seeds of cardamom minor	1½ "
Cloves	1½ "
Dry rose petal	½ "
Chua	1 "
Camphor	1½ "

Take all the ingredients except the last two and soak them in good rose water for 12 hours. Then bray them together to a paste form and incorporate chua and camphor.

HER DYEING

77 C.P., Gudivada—Desires to know the best of dyeing leather.

Leather is cheaply dyed with water dyes and spirit dyes. In the case of water dyes the dye is dissolved in boiling water and is applied to the leather with a medium soft brush.

BLACK

Water	1 gallon.
Sodic soda	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Resine	12 "
Primal yellow	12 "

TAN

Water	1 gallon.
Sodic soda	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Primer brown	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

Water dyes are prepared chiefly from alcohol spirit, acetone, turpentine and white mixtures of these.

BLACK

Alcohol spirit	1 gallon.
Primer	1 "
Primer black	12 oz.
Primer oil	4 "
Primer grass oil	4 "

COLOURED

Alcohol spirit	1 gallon.
Primer oil	1 pint.
Primer (coloured), oil soluble	6 oz.
Primer mirbane	2 "

Apply with a soft brush.

PRINTING

78 S.I.S.M., Madras—Desires to know a method of printing tin plate.

A modern method of printing upon tinned plate is an application of offset printing. Printing machines may belong to either the rotary type, but they are built for special purpose and have their own peculiarities. The tinned plate, does not come in contact with the printing surface as it is carried round with the cylinder and it is fed, it receives an offset impression from a rubber blanket fixed upon a second cylinder which has already taken a direct print from the printing surface. As the plates are fed they are arranged in racks and kept dry or they may be put into a stone for drying.

For printing each plate should be thoroughly rubbed on both sides with a duster to remove dirt, grease, etc., which may prevent the ink from printing. Rough plates must also be smoothed, as otherwise the rubber blanket will soon be damaged.

The method adopted is the same as that of paper. The white would be done first, then cover up all parts except those required to appear as gold and silver, or any parts of a colour is required to appear with a yellow. Of course, only transparent yellow is usually printed after the white: it

produces a nice strong buff where it falls upon the white, and a bright gold where it comes upon the bare tin. It may, however, be had of various shades to suit special requirements. It helps to give depth of colour and brilliancy to solid reds and other colours. It is an important matter for the artist when drawing the design to take full advantage of the light colours. The black printing would come next, followed by the red and blue. After the work has dried, the plates are varnished and then stoved, after which they are ready for the tin box workers.

As with ordinary offset printing the rubber blanket will require to be washed several times during the day. This should be done with a very volatile liquid such as solvent naphtha spirits of turpentine, or benzoline, and it should be immediately afterwards dusted over with fine flour of sulphur. This treatment will impart to the rubber a fine printing surface.

All designs to be printed on tin should be specially lithographed by an artist with experience of tin plate work. Type matter must be reversed.

DEODORISING KEROSENE OIL

247 G.L., Srinagar—Wants to know a process of deodorising kerosene oil.

Kerosene oil	1 gallon.
Chloride of lime	3 oz.
Slaked lime	3 "
Hcl	q. s.

Mix the chloride of lime with the oil, and add Hcl until chlorine gas leaves to be given off, mixing thoroughly. Then pour on to the slaked lime, contained in another vessel, and allow it to remain a couple of days. Then well mix up. Allow the lime to subside, and draw off the petroleum.

COCOA BUTTER SUBSTITUTE

192 A.M.F., Gohi—Wants a formula of cocoa butter substitute.

Lanolin	6 parts.
Spermaceti	3 "
Olive oil	1 part.

Mix the ingredients over slow fire. Then set aside to cool.

COLOURING CELLULOID SHEETS

267 H.N.D., Ahmedabad—Wishes to have recipes of colouring celluloid sheets.

Thin celluloid sheets can be stained superficially, on one side or both sides, by dipping them in a bath of coal tar dye, prepared by pour-

TRADE MARKS & PATENTS

For any difficulty in registration of trade marks & patents in India or abroad Consult :

DEWAN RAJ KUMAR,
Trade Marks & Patents Attorney,
78, Pudar Chambers, Fort, Bombay.

Phone: 32444. Note: Head office of Trade Marks Registry for India is in Bombay.

ing an alcoholic solution of the coal-tar dye into a bath of 99 per cent. spirit containing a small amount of shellac and sandarac, or some other resin. This bath is acidified with boric acid, and shortly before use a little ether is added, to accelerate the drying of the coloured layer on the surface of the celluloid.

The celluloid sheets are immersed for a short time merely, this being sufficient to mordant and colour the surface. The coloured layer dries very quickly. If only one side of the sheet is to be stained, the other is first coated with asphaltum in the usual manner.

CRACKERS

278 N.S., Shiyall—Wants to have a recipe of crackers.

Saltpetre	45	parts.
Sulphur	18	"
Charcoal	25	"
Potassium chlorate	8	"
Fine sand	4	"

Mix very cautiously and skilfully; fill tissue paper tubes.

MERCERISING COTTON THREAD

317 B.C., Kalyan—Desires to know a process of mercerising cotton thread.

Mercerising of cotton consists in impregnating the fibres with concentrated caustic soda lye, either with or without the application of tension, and in stretching material before and during the removal of the soda by means of washing. Mercerisation of cotton can be carried out either in the loose state or in the woven condition. Boiling out is of course the first step, although in occasional instances, when dealing with certain qualities of cloth, it is not resorted to. Hanks are boiled out under low pressure, while air passed through a boiling out machine. Both forms of yarn are occasionally dried up after washing, before being brought into contact with the mercerising liquor.

The principles involved in the control of the mercerising bath are the same for both yarns and cloths. They depend upon the temperature of the bath as well as upon its degree of concentration, and also upon the state of the material wet or dry. When employed at a strength from about 22°Tw. to 56°Tw., and used regularly and continuously at the same strength, the temperature of the bath should not be allowed to exceed 30°C. At low temperatures the strength may be relatively decreased within certain limits. Generally considered, the

duration of contact of the alkali with cotton is regarded only as a matter of secondary importance, excepting in certain cases of treating pieces, when the contact is allowed to continue for many hours. For most purposes a treatment extending over two to five days is considered sufficient to give the maximum results.

After treatment with caustic soda the washing is an operation as important as the treatment and should be accomplished while the material is still under tension. After this source of washing follow, especially if the goods are finished and are required for dyeing with other colours than the substantive and mordant dyes.

After washing, the cotton is dried in the stretched condition, mercerised yarn has an appreciably better lustre than when in the loose state. A course of stringing on specially constructed machines is also occasionally resorted to.

GLAZED THREAD

Bring 5 gallons of soft water to 100°F. Then add 1.5 pound of potassium which has previously been dissolved in water. After thoroughly mixing, add 1.5 hard paraffin and 3.2 ounces coconut oil. All is dissolved, empty into clear pails when cold. Keep the tension of the thread on the machine as much as possible. This helps to get a good, soft, brilliant lustre. Too much tension the thread will be wire.

GENERAL SOLDERING FLUX

331 G.S.A., Deheri—Wishes to know formulas of soldering flux, gold solder, etc.

SILVER SOLDER

Silver	40
Copper	15
Zinc	20
Cadmium	18
Tin	1
Lead	1

Fuse in a fireclay crucible. Then in oiled moulds to have thin sheets.

GOLD SOLDER

Gold	25
Palladium	2
Copper	5
Cadmium	3
Silver	4
Zinc	1/10

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BRASS SOLDER

Zinc	49 parts.
Copper	44 "
Tin	4 "
Lead	2 "

BLACK DRAWING INK

333 R.V.S., Pindivaram Taluk—Desires to know a good recipe of black drawing ink.

Borax	3 lbs.
Bleached shellac	4 "
Carbon black	2½ "
Distilled water	50 "

Dissolve the borax in the distilled water and add to it the bleached shellac. Keep for a day or until the solution becomes clear. Strain through a fine cloth. Lastly add the carbon black in a part of this solution and thin the smooth concentration to the balance of it. Add some precipitated borax or salicylic acid 1/10 per cent.

COLOUR CAKES

Water colours may be prepared by mixing the respective pigments, previously reduced to powder, into a smooth paste with gum. The paste is then compressed into cakes as tightly as possible and dried with a gentle heat. Old crumbling cake colours may be powdered very finely in a mortar, passed through fine muslin and ground up as before the gum water being omitted. The cakes rubbed up with honey to the consistency of cream, constitute moist colours.

N

334 R.P., Ahmednagar—Wants to have a formula of preparing snow, and also of pills.

Stearic acid, triple pressed	200 parts.
Caustic potash, sticks	14 "
Water	750 "
Glycerine	50 "
Oil, spirit	100 "
Castor oil	4 "
Essence	2 "
Essence of oil	1 part.
Essence of oil	1 "
Essence of oil	5 parts.

Melt the stearic acid in one third of the water. Dissolve the glycerine in the remaining portion of the water. Now put the acid in a porcelain or enameled vessel in a water bath and also put the caustic solution in the remaining water in another two vessels placed over the water bath heated to 80°C.

Put the contents of all the three vessels in a vessel heated to about 80°C. the caustic potash is slowly stirred in the melted stearic acid vigorously for a few minutes and slowly add the water. Remove the vessel from the water bath to cool but continue stirring until the mass is nearly solidified. Now add the essential oils in the spirit and add this to the melted mass. Cover and set aside, stir occasionally. In about two weeks the silvery salts begin to form.

KASTURI PILLS

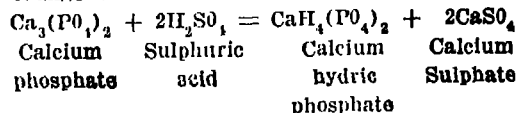
Cardamom	10 oz.
Cloves	10 "
Cinnamon	10 "
Nutmeg	10 "
Mace	10 "
Cubeb	10 "
Catechu	10 "
Camphor	1 "
Musk	1/10 "

Take the ingredients in fine powder and thoroughly mix. Put the whole in a mortar and make it a stiff paste by adding rose water. Bray well for some time. Take this and make it into small pills of 2-3 grains each and dry it in shade.

PHOSPHORUS

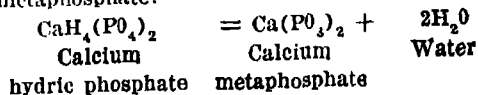
390 R.C.P., Dindori—Desires to know a process of making phosphorus.

The first step in the preparation of phosphorus is to mix bone-ash with two-thirds of its weight of sulphuric acid diluted with water. Calcium phosphate is insoluble, but under this treatment is transformed into a soluble acid phosphate, commonly known as superphosphate of lime. The following equation represents the change which occurs:—

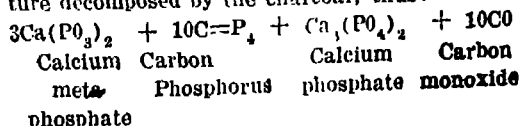


The calcium sulphate is allowed to settle, and then the clear solution of acid phosphate is evaporated down to the consistency of a syrup and mixed into a paste with powdered charcoal. This is dried and then heated to low redness in an earthenware retort, the stem of which dips under water.

The first result of the application of heat is that the acid or hydric phosphate loses its water, being converted into a salt known as the metaphosphate:—



The metaphosphate is at the high temperature decomposed by the charcoal; thus:—



The phosphorus thus produced distils over, and is purified by re-distillation and squeezing through wash-leather under warm water.

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—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEM

[Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to send us his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful career. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by post.]

LIMITED LIABILITY COMPANIES

375 B.B.C., Agra—Wants to be enlightened on the particulars of limited liability companies.

Limited liability companies are divided into (a) private companies and (b) public companies. A private company can be registered by two or more persons if by its articles it (1) restricts the right to transfer its shares; (2) limits the number of its members to fifty; and prohibits and appeals to the public at large to take up shares or debentures. This has had a prejudicial effect upon the Limited Partnership Act, as by registering a business as a private company the partners then all have liability limited. A public limited company must consist of at least seven members. To come into being a Memorandum of Association must be registered which defines the nature and scope of its business. This memorandum must state (1) the name of the company—with the word "Limited" attached (2) the country where the registered office is situated; (3) the objects of the company; (4) that the liability of the members is limited; (5) the amount of share capital and the division thereof into shares of a fixed amount. This memorandum must be signed by the subscribers and it is provided that (1) no subscriber to the Memorandum may take less than one share; (2) that each subscriber writes opposite to his name the number of shares he takes.

With the Memorandum of Association may be lodged (1) the Articles of Association i.e., the rules and regulations for the management of the company; (2) a list of the directors with their written consent to act; (3) a contract by any director to pay for his qualifying shares and (4) a statutory declaration by the secretary, a director or solicitor employed in the promotion, that all the requirement of registration have been complied with.

PROSPECTS OF AN INSURANCE AGENTS

423 P.K.S., Jubbulpore—Writes, "Will you please discuss in the columns of your esteemed journal the prospects and requirements of an insurance agent?"

That the insurance business is expanding day by day and holds out great possibilities is common knowledge. The insurance companies

transact a huge amount of business and insurance agents have extraordinary chances of earning fat dividends by doing and intelligent work. The occupation of insurance agent is both lucrative and respectable. The profits that successful men in the make are quite decent and should attract the youngmen more and more. But the career supposes zeal for work, able canvassing ability and capable salesmanship. This sometimes seems tiresome and the first months are the most trying period in the history of an insurance agent. Disappointments are met with more often than progress. Sometimes become heart breaking.

A prospective insurance agent should before trying for an agency master the facilities of the insurance business and should make it a point to acquire a fairly good knowledge of the general business of insurance, and what facilities this business offer to the prospective customers.

On appointment the first duty of the agent should be to study the prospectus and the literatures of the company as if they were examination papers and discuss them by himself till he is familiar with all its ins. and outs. He is thoroughly acquainted with its strong and weak points.

Acquaint yourself as thoroughly as possible with the full history of the company and its working as far as possible. A knowledge of the affairs of all the companies working in the same line is most covetable as this enables the agent to stand on solid grounds when the names of all the companies crop up. The aim of an agent is to make a name by tactful ability and good service. He should be in a position to explain why he is convinced that the methods adopted by his company have advantages over those of his rivals. On the forceful and convincing talk on this point depends the success of the agent not to a little extent. He should be aware of all the alloys in the local insurance affairs and by dint of his knowledge the insurance institutions should be able to show the policy and general conditions of our business are in some respects not so good as the customer as that of the agent's company. In other respects they are less advanced.

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—BRIEF QUERIES AND

Street:—R.L.S

Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from our readers will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two International Reply coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters.

P.D.M., Shamby—I appreciate your advice. You should devote more time and energy in flour mill, rice mill and oil mill. I apprehend competition from other sugar millers may hamper your business. You should stop manufacturing sugar for export. But if this also does not suit you, you may store sugar and stock it for selling during the time of scarcity. Over and above this you should try to eliminate hand labour as far as you can.

S.V.S., Lucknow—For machines and accessories making etc. enquire of Alfred Klein & Co. Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road; Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; T. E. Thomson & Co. Ltd., 9A, Strand Road East; all of Calcutta.

N.C.C., Coimbatore—For spinning machines write to Oriental Machinery Supplying Co. Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta and W. H. Brady & Co. Ltd., Church Street, Fort, Bombay.

B.L.S., Patharia—You may consult the Market of India, 40, Tadmadi, Chitra Road, Bombay. You have to prepare thin sticks for agarbati from bamboos. We have a book on paint and distemper manufacturing. You may enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta for the same.

R.S.M., Shimoga—For water bags enquire of Bengal Waterproof Works (1940) Ltd., Theatre Road, Calcutta.

H.V., Bangalore—Process of manufacturing phosphor appeared in May 1950 issue of Industry.

J.K., Travancore—For hops write to J.K. & Co., 37, Grant Street, Calcutta and J.K. Stores, 2, Bertram Street, Calcutta.

H.M.G., New Delhi—You may take manufacture of hair pins and clips on a small scale and expand the business accordingly. Shoe lace making may also be done on a small scale. You may also manufacture with Rs. 5,000.

L., Ollur—For required pencil write to L. & Co., 12, Belegata Main Road, Calcutta. G. C. Law & Co., 2, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

S., Amroha—There is no arrangement for training on plastic industry for shoe making. For machines you may enquire of Francis Klein & Co., Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place and Alfred Herbert & Co., 13-3, Strand Road; both of Calcutta.

S., Howrah—An article on cottage industries appeared in December 1950 issue of Industry.

507 B.D.D., Etawah—For press machine enquire of Alfred Herbert (India), Ltd., 13-3, Strand Road and Francis Klein & Co., Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta.

508 S.I.Q., Madras—Process of manufacturing vinegar will be found in Home Industries published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

509 R.U., Nigeria—You may deal in indigenous herbs and drugs also in manufactured goods such as sporting goods, textile lute manufactures, rubber goods, etc. But you will not be able to do business on commission basis. You have to buy the goods outright. Address of Indian goods manufacturers will be found in Industry Year Book and Directory published from this office, price £1-6Sh.

510 F.C.I., Rawalpindi—Advertising tape may be had of Eagle Advertising Tape Factory, 51, Eaglewadi, Kurla, Bombay.

511 V.P.D.S., Masulipatam—Collapsible tubes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta.

512 P.C.C., Allahabad—You may start import and export business. This business may be started on a small scale and can be expanded as you like. As regards cloth and cycle business you may also import these articles from foreign countries when your business will fall under general import business. Scope of textile and cycle business is limited while the scope of import business is unlimited. You may import from a smallest needle to an automobile or an aeroplane. So it is advisable for you to start import and export business.

513 J.P.J., Rikhikesh—If you go through April 1951 issue of Industry which deals with an exhaustive article on Indian Soil and Crops you will get all the informations your require.

514 E.L.G.C., Bombay—We have no book on carbon paper manufacture. Process of manufacturing carbon paper appeared in March 1951 issue of Industry. For machine enquire of Jessop & Co. Ltd., 93, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

515 U.C.C., Kanpur—Pin making machines may be had of Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A. Process of gloy making will be found in April 1950 issue of Industry.

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1, Jahar Lall Dutt Lane, Calcutta.

Delhi—Radio parts may be had of U. C. Ltd., 170, Dharamtala Street; Philips Electrical Co. (India) Ltd., 2, Heysham Road; L. C. Saha Ltd., 20D, Lindsay Street and Nalini Radio & Electric Corporation, 5, Lindsay Street; all of Calcutta.

517 V.C.B.P., Jamnagar—For bandage making machines enquire of W. H. Brady & Co. Ltd., Mercantile Bldgs., Lall Bazar, Calcutta.

518 T.N.S., Bhimavaram—Bottles may be had of The Krishna Silicate & Glass Works Ltd., 17, Radha Bazar Street; Imperial Glass Works, 9, Ezra Street; Victoria Glass Works, 130, Mechuabazar St.; Oriental Glass Works, 58, Bahir Sura Road, and New Cherry Glass Works, 137-15, Narkeldanga Main Road; all of Calcutta. An exhaustive list of glass bottle manufacturers will be found in Industry Year Book & Directory published from this office, price Rs. 16/4/- including postage.

519 N.V.D., Madras—Process of manufacturing benzoin appeared in February 1951 issue of Industry.

520 B.P.W., Pattala—Groundnut oil is treated with 10 per cent of its weight of fuller's earth, which should be dehydrated by roasting prior to use. Mix thoroughly and then heat the mixture to 100°F and maintain the temperature constant for 15 minutes. Lastly filter the oil through filter press. Thus a clear oil is obtained but the odour of the oil is somewhat earthy. To remove this bad odour wash the oil with 1 per cent solution of brine containing on equal amount of dry sodium carbonate. You have to extract juice from bhringaraj. Shellac wax and bhringaraj may be had of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta.

521 S.G., Lucknow—You may consult Talbot & Co., Tower House, Chowringhee Square, Calcutta.

522 R.A., Raipur—Envelop and cardboard box making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta and John Dickinson & Co., 6, Clive Row, Calcutta.

523 H.T.S., Garobadha Hath—Refer your query to the Secretary, Royal Calcutta Turf Club, 11, Russel Street, Calcutta.

525 P.L.M., Jodhpur—For graphite enquire of Bengal Supply Co., 23-24, Strand Road, Calcutta; Modern Traders Ltd., 22, Canning Street and Keymer Bagshawe & Co., Ltd., 22, Strand Road; all of Calcutta.

526 S.N., Kalimpong—We have no book on beeswax bleaching. Process of beeswax bleaching appeared in March 1951 issue of Industry.

527 S.K.V., Lucknow—It is not possible to recharge exhausted dry cells.

530 V.A.C., Madurai—For addresses of Belgium you may negotiate with Consul General

for Belgium, 24/1A, Alipore Road, Calcutta. may also negotiate with the Consulate General for China, 30, Stephen Court, 18B, Park Street, Calcutta.

531 S.B., Jullundur City—We are aware of the full address of New Human

532 B.B.T., Agra—For steel wire enquire of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 21, Netaji Subhas Road; Calcutta Steel and Wire Agency, Clive Row; Paul Brothers, 115, Netaji Subhas Road and Standard Metal Co., 77-1, Netaji Subhas Rd.; all of Calcutta.

534 C.A.C., Chelakara—Process of facturing denatured spirit will appear in course.

535 S.I.C., Jaunpur—For ice candy machine enquire of Refrigeration & Air Conditioning Industries Ltd., 34, Ezra Street; Refrigerators (India) Ltd., 59C, Park Street; Ice & Refrigerators Ltd., 5, Royal Exchange Place; all of Calcutta. For thermoflask enquire of the following firms: Dutt & Co., Old China Bazar Street and Bepin Behal, 495, Old China Bazar Street; both of Calcutta.

537 R.K.G., Dhampur—Formulas for paint and glass ink will appear in due course.

538 A.C.B., Palamau—Following is a list of soorki mills: Ananda Soorkey Mill, 2, Galiff Street; Behar Surkey Mill, 2, Lime Street; Calcutta Soorkey Mill, 22A, Canal West; Durgapore Surkey Mills, 73, Mahesh Dutt Road; and Kamala Soorkey Mill, 153, Galiff Street, all of Calcutta. Following is a list of rolling mills: India Rolling Mills Ltd., Stephen Road, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta; Eyre Smelters Ltd., Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta and Durga Rolling Mills, 197-1, G. T. Road, S. Howrah.

539 H.A.H.C., Jubbulpore—Powdered balans are used in tanning leather. Powdered hide may be utilised in making glue.

542 H.J.S., Bombay—Further particulars regarding new sulphuric acid plant are available. It is still in experimental stage. It has not been put on commercial scale.

544 S.C., Marakankadawala—For fittings enquire of the following firms: Bose & Co., 184, Chandney Chowk and Hardware Stores, 155-156, Chandney Chowk, both of Calcutta.

545 B.R.T., Bikaner—Your enquiry was published in March 1951 issue of Industry under Enquiry Columns so it cannot be repeated. It is better put an advertisement in Classified pages of Industry.

546 M.K.K., Mangalore—Process of facturing benzoin appeared in March 1951 issue of Industry.

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547 R.L.K., Davangere—Process of manufacturing artificial slate appeared in April 1951 issue of Industry.

548 H.C.P., Patna—Process of manufacturing goods will be found in Manufacture of Goods published from this office, price including postage. Process of manufacturing snow cream will appear in due course.

549 S.R.C., Bombay—The article sent by you is unsuitable to be published in Industry Editorial Board.

550 M.A.K., Bombay—Following is a list of cards manufacturers: S. A. Leonard, 13-1A, Govt. Place East, Calcutta; Playing Card & Carton Manufacturing, Shikar, Gwalior; Oswal Playing Card Co., Sadar Bazar, Delhi and United Playing Co., 81, Chukla Street, Bombay 3.

551 P.K.M., Travancore—Process of manufacturing water will appear in due course.

552 K.S.M., Lahore—We cannot help you in the special kind of wax without seeing specimen.

553 S.R.P., Ganjam—Tannic acid and gallic acid can be had of Calcutta Chemical Co., Ltd., 10, Old Lane; Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khemchand Street and Fuzelhussein & Bros., 41, Chatterjee Street; all of Calcutta.

554 A.P., Ganjam—Perfumery raw materials can be had of Paradise Perfumery House, 10, Old Lane; Essence Supply Agency, 6, Chatterjee Street, Calcutta; B. C. Patel & Co., 143, Chatterjee Street, Bombay; F. N. Sirkar, 37, Chatterjee Street, Calcutta and Perfumery Ingredients, 11, Mangaldas Road Market, Bombay.

555 A.C.B., Jodhpur—Process of manufacturing sulphalene balls and rubber balloons will appear in due course.

556 P.C., Neemuch—For tea enquire of the following firms: Bharat Tea Estate Factory, 10, Jalpaiguri; Bharnabari Tea Estate, 10, Jalpaiguri; Hasimara, Jalpaiguri; Rhoni Tea Factory, Kurseong, Darjeeling and Tea Estate, Tung, Darjeeling.

557 G.R.S., Goraya—To fasten rubber to wood use a cement by macerating virgin rubber as pure rubber as can be had, cut in thin sheets, in just enough naphtha or galsolene over it. Let it stand in a very tightly sealed jar 14 days, or a sufficient time to be dissolved, shaking the mixture daily.

558 P.K.N., Madras—For sarees enquire of the following firms: M. S. & Co., 61-5, New Market and L. H. & Co. Ltd., 10, Park Street; both of Calcutta.

559 B.B.T., Agra—For transfer pictures enquire of the following firms: Mu-

kharji & Sons, 14, Badur Bagan Street; R. G. Paul & Co., 110/2, Grey Street; Signograph Co., 208, Gopal Lal Thakur Road and Union Investors, 32B, Chandra Chatterjee Street; all of Calcutta.

570 M.S.B., Ludhiana—Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industry Prize Article Vol. 1, Price Rs. 2/- including postage.

571 T.S.L.I., Cachar—For selling pine-apples you may negotiate with the following fruit dealers; Dulichand Kisholal, 146, Cotton Street; Gokul Chand & Co., 18, Bal Mukunda Mukkar Road and Gopilal Tulsiram, 68, Cotton Street; all of Calcutta.

572 M.P.P.C., Bhitwara—For candle making machines and moulds enquire of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension; both of Calcutta.

573 E.C.F.I., Ambala Cantt.—There is no arrangement for giving practical training in ultramarine. A good formula of ultramarine blue appeared in September, 1950 issue of Industry.

575 P.N.D., Agartala—For nut and bolt making machine enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, and Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta. Particulars of the machine will be supplied by the machine suppliers.

578 N.D., Jamnagar—For umbrella fittings you may write to Containers (India) Ltd., 11-2, Old China Bazar Street; Gambhir Chand Rath, 39, Armenian Street and Sohanlal Mohanlal Ltd., 5, Lucas Lane, all of Calcutta.

580 G.M.C., New Delhi—For making wire of copper you should use wire drawing machine which may be had of Kilburn & Co. Ltd., 4, Fairlie Place, Calcutta; Jessop & Co. Ltd., 93, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Mather & Platt Ltd., Bruce Street, Fort, Bombay. Process of enamelling copper appeared in January 1950 issue of Industry.

581 S.B.M.I., Aligarh—You may communicate with the querist with the number and initials care of Industry when your letters will be redirected.

582 G.D.S.C., Kanauj—Process of manufacturing liquid and solid disinfectant appeared in April 1950 issue of Industry.

583 S.F., Gorakhpur—All the machines you require may be had of Kilburn & Co. Ltd., 4, Fairlie Place, Calcutta; Dr. Bose's Laboratories Ltd., 45, Amherst Street, Calcutta and Prabartak Commercial Corporation, 61, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta.

BEFORE ORDER FOR STEEL FURNITURE

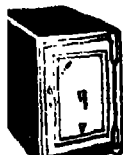
Please Consult :

NATIONAL TRADERS,

Manufacturers of : IRON-SAFES & STEEL CABINETS ETC.

58, CLIVE STREET, CALCUTTA 7.

A N D



584 R.S.S., Purnea—You may negotiate with the following glass works: Balaukh Glass Works, 7, Swallow Lane; Burma Glass Works, 9, Ezra Street; Glass Products Ltd., 56, Belgachia Road; Hind Glass Works, 35, Chittaranjan Avenue; Jayanti Glass Works Ltd., 8, Ezra Street and Victoria Glass Works, 130, Mechua-bazar Street; all of Calcutta. Packing paper may be had of Bharat Paper Syndicate, 1-2, Jackson Lane and Bholanath Paper House Ltd., 32A, Brabourne Road; both of Calcutta. Following is a list of industrial and commercial journals: Indian Textile Journal, Surya Mahal, Military Square, Fort, Bombay; Commerce, Royal Insurance Bldg., Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay; Arthik Bharat, 3, Commercial Bldg., 23, Netaji Subhas Road; Arthik Jagat, 122, Bow Bazar Street; Calcutta Exchange Gazette, 5, Mission Row and Capital, 4, Lyons Range; last four of Calcutta.

587 S.A.N.K., Darbhanga—Process of manufacturing extra-strong peppermint lozenge will appear in due course.

588 A.P.J., Rohtak—For selling calcine you may negotiate with Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane and Indian Mineral Industries Ltd., 22A, Dum Dum Road, both of Calcutta.

595 D.R.N.S., Bangalore City—Betelnut shall be cut in small pieces then put in grinding machine for powdering.

597 S.I.B., Amraoti—We have no book on ushan grass cultivation. For agricultural book write to Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

603 T.S., Nandyal—Following is the process of manufacturing rose otto on small scale: Procure rose petals of one colour and layout $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, in a vessel. Cover them with a clean piece of rag moistened with sandal oil and folded 4 times. The cloth should be thoroughly wetted by rasping. Layout over the rag on other lot of petals. Then close up the mouth of the vessel and place in the sun for 15 days. Finally press out the otto. Store in a stoppered phial and place in the sun for a month to clarify. Jasmine otto may be prepared by this process.

608 R.B., Madras—Rubber stamp making implements may be had of Rubber Seeven & Co., 156, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

609 M.A.B., Jodhpur—For essence of enquire of Paradise Perfumery House, 7, tola Street. Process of manufacturing nallene balls will be found in Manufacture of Disinfectants & Antiseptics published from this office, Price Rs. 3-8 including postage. Process of manufacturing rubber balloons will be found in Manufacture of Rubber Goods published from this office, price Rs. 3-8 including postage.

610 H.S.A., Meerut—For razor engraving the following firms: Esmail Yar Mo Bros., 22, Cutlery Bazar, Bombay; Madan Sadar Bazar, Meerut and Diamond Scissors, Outside Kamboo Gate, Meerut City.

612 P.K.K.P., Quilon—Process of manufacturing candles appeared in April 1950 of Industry.

613 A.D.H., Marak—We are not sure whether life belts are stuffed with Kapas or Semul Cotton. No life belts are made of rubber tubes.

615 U.W.M., Pyu—Oil extracting and trifugal sugar making machine may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency, 112, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

614 S.S.P., Siwan—Thermometer and hydrometer may be had of Adair Dutt & Co. Ltd., Stephen House, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta and India Scientific Stores, 14-2, Old Bazar Street, Calcutta.

619 B.S.P., Hoshiarpur—Process of covering silver from waste film will appear in due course.

624 I.N.K., Delhi—Process of manufacturing all kinds of ink will be found in 1950 issue of Industry. You may also see Manufacture of Ink published from this office, price Rs. 3-8 including postage.

625 S.D., Calcutta—Process of manufacturing aluminium flouride will appear in due course.

626 T.B.F., Indore—All kinds of lantern slides may be had of Calcutta Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, and Banshidhar, 126, Khengrapatty Street; both of Calcutta.

627 K.S., Markapur—Process of manufacturing lantern slides will appear in due course.

631 B.R.T., Italian Nagar—Sanskrit name of Coptis Teeta is mishamilita. In India it is known as golden thread root. It is found in the Mishmi mountains of east of India. Imported into Bengal. Dried root is used as a medicine. It contains neither tannin nor gallic acid but abounds in a compound, yellow bitter principle berberine soluble in water and in alcohol. It is febrifuge, tonic it increases appetite, restores power and removes flatulence and obstructions. It is said to be useful in jaundice as well as in debility, convalescence after illness and other debilitating diseases, atonic dyspepsia and in mild forms of intermittent fever, catarrhal and rheumatic conjunctivitis, the root made into a paste with Rosavanti is used as a collyrium for the eyes.

637 A.L.B., New Delhi—Santonin is known as ship, kirmala, kirmari-owa, etc. It is a variable plant found in the Western Himalayas from Kashmir to Kumaon. Wormseed may be had of Indian Herb Store, 31, Mullick Street, Calcutta.

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CALCUTTA - 1.

Grams:

Phone:

Old dawn.

B. B. 514 & 5755.

and Banashidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street; both of Calcutta.

664 K.V.N., Jaysingpur—Process of manufacturing chalk sticks will be found in this office. Price Rs. 3-8- including postage.

665 D.C.P., Saugor—Following is a list of factories: Western India Match Co., 1, Nambazar, Near Calcutta; Calcutta Industrial Works, 14-22, Canal East Rd., Calcutta; Match Factory, 16, Dum Dum Road, Calcutta, 24 Parg.; Kankaria Match Factory, Kankaria Tank, Ahmedabad and Amrit Match Factory, Kargi Road, Bilaspur.

666 A.T.C., Sakchi—For graphite crushers enquire of Jessop & Co. Ltd., 93, Subhas Road and Marshall Sons & Co., 1, Netaji Subhas Road; both of Calcutta. No book on minerals. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Esplanade East and W. Newman & Co., Old Court House Street; both of Calcutta.

667 M.S., Nazareth—Process of manufacturing coffee tablets will appear in due course. For making machine enquire of Small Machines Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road; Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., Mission Row Extension and Prabartak Industrial Corporation Ltd., 61, Bowbazar, all of Calcutta.

668 Y.B.S., Katmandu—For religious Hindi enquire of the following firms: Central Book Depot, 195-1, Harrison Rd., Library, Bangalore and Sri Aurobindo Press, 15, College Square; all of Calcutta.

669 T.M., Bombay—Process of manufacturing nylon, etc. and crystal plastic will appear in due course.

670 M.G.S., Madras—Soap making machine may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., Kar Road and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, both of Calcutta. Raw materials for soap may be had of Calcutta Mineral Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane, Calcutta.

671 T.C., Faridabad—For industrial enquire of the following firms: Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East; Spink & Co. Ltd., 3 & 1, Old Court House Street; Standard Literature Co. Ltd., 13-1, Old Court House Street; all of Calcutta.

672 R.M.S., Karachi—For automobile parts enquire of the following firms: Automobiles, Opera Tram Terminus, Howrah Motor Co. Ltd., Mission Row, Calcutta and Jyoti Motor Stores, No. 8994, Calcutta.

666 S.B.H., Indore—For pin, tag and envelope making machines write to Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. The firm will supply you particulars regarding starting factories with their machines.

667 C.C.P., Surat—Tallow may be had of Indian Tallow Supply Co., 21, Tiretta Bazar Street and Calcutta Tallow Supplying Co., 19, Tiretta Bazar St.; both of Calcutta. For perfumes enquire of F. N. Sirkar, 37, Canning St., Calcutta and Ghose Bros., 50, Ezra St., Calcutta.

669 K.V.S., Mangalore—Process of manufacturing insulating tape appeared in August 1950 issue of Industry.

670 M.C., Calcutta—We have no directory of printing presses. A list of printing press will be found in Industry Year Book and Directory which you have already got.

671 S.P.C., Bombay—Process of stencilling will appear in due course.

673 S.V.Z.C., Lucknow—Please write in English.

677 M.Y.K., Muzaffarnagar—For electroplating chemicals enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13-3, Strand Road and S. Mitra & Co., 30, Bentinck Street; both of Calcutta.

682 P.N.K., New Delhi—For waterproof enquire of the following firms: B. C. Nawn & Co., 7, Bow Bazar Street; Bengal Waterproof Works Ltd., 32, Theatre Road and Hari Ram & Co., 171, Harrison Road; all of Calcutta.

683 P.R., Calicut—Process of manufacturing snow cream and brilliantine will appear in due course. For registering trade mark you may negotiate with Dutt & Co., 82, Harrison Road, Calcutta.

685 S.R.R., Shencottah—Process of manufacturing attar and essences will be found in Indian Perfumes, Essences and Hair Oils, published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

686 P.C.B., Hazaribagh—Leather may be had of Anwar Leather Stores, P-15, Bentinck Street, Calcutta; Chinese Leather Syndicate Ltd., 2-1, Russell Street, Calcutta; A. V. Mohamed & Co., 247, Angappa Naick Street, Madras; Empire Leather Works, 1/35, Khaleel Mansions, Mint Road, Madras; Bombay Leather Stores, La Touche Road, Kanpur; Cawnpur Leather Industries, Meston Road, Kanpur and Jeewa Bhai Ismail, La Touche Road, Kanpur.

689 T.N.S., Kotah—It is not possible to start an oil mill with Rs. 100/- as capital. You may start biri manufacture with Rs. 100/-. Process of biri manufacture will be found in Indian Tobacco and Its Preparation published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

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690 P.N.M., Gajendragad—Photo frame cutting machine may be had of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, Calcutta.

691 A.P.J., Rohtak—Formulas of infants food, casein plastic etc., will appear in due course.

698 A.S.K., Rampur—You may consult books on glue manufacture and phosphorus manufacture which may be had of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

701 A.H.S., Madras—For books enquire of the following firms: W. & G. Foyle Ltd., 119-125, Charing Cross Road, London W. C. 2; Chapman & Hall Ltd., 37, Essex Street, Strand, London W. C. 2 and Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., 1, Amen Corner, London E. C.

702 P.C.C., Samastipur—Flat rice (Cheeras) is not manufactured in a machine. Dhenky is used for making flat rice.

703 A.A.C., Jamshedpur—For securing Central Drug Licence you have to apply to the Director, Central Drugs Laboratory, Govt. of India, 110, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta, who will supply you a form and other particulars. You should fill up the form and send it to the Director.

704 T.E.W., Darbhanga—Sulphur dioxide and methyl chloride gases are not manufactured in India.

705 J.P.S.L., Kanpur—Recipes of medicines you require will appear in due course.

713 O.I.C., Berhampur—No such chemical which imparts glaze on confectionery is available.

715 M.S., Broach—All the chemicals you require may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street; both of Calcutta. Dyes may be had of Fuzle Hussain & Bros., 44, Armenian Street and Champalal Agarwala, 45, Armenian Street; both of Calcutta.

717 R.S.G., Raiganj—Isopropyl alcohol may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta. Filter press may be had of Subol Dutt & Sons Ltd., 13, Brabourne Road, Calcutta. You may use any kind of otto for flavouring sindur.

718 C.S., Kharagpur—To communicate with any querist write him with number and initial care of Industry when your letter will be duly redirected.

719 B.M.S., Saharanpur—Following is a formula of brake oil: Castor oil, neutral 10 parts; alcohol 10 parts. Mix and use.

720 B.D.S., Patna—Dies for buttons may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

721 H.S., Budaun—For rope making machines write to Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

725 U.S.A., Meerut City—Process of gilding will be found in Electroplating In Practice published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage. For tempering box enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, Calcutta and Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place, Calcutta.

727 S.D.S., Tadpatri—Boil water 212°F.

730 N.I.P.B., Kunnamkulam—To beeswax cut it in thin flakes and put in sun for 4 or 5 hours when it will melt easily; strain through linen.

731 N.B.C., Howrah—No machine required for manufacturing sugar candy. Pans for boiling sugar and iron pots with perforated bottoms are required. After the syrup it is poured in the pots and pieces of sugar candy are hung in the means of thread.

733 S.S., Calcutta—Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industrial Articles Vol. 1 published from this office, Rs. 2/- including postage. Machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

736 T.N.B., Kanpur—For shellac enquire of the following firms: A. M. Aratho, 11, Stephen House, Dalhousie Square; J. S. Bros. Ltd., 6, Lyons Range and T. S. Shellac Factory, Hathibari, Tollygunge, Calcutta. Moulding powder is not made in India at present.

737 D.V.S.B., Ludhiana—The anodization of aluminium produces a surface which is totally unlike the metal in colour and possesses a rather remarkable set of properties. When properly prepared it can be coloured with a variety of organic dyes and pigments to produce attractive decorative effects. Detailed process of anodic oxidation of aluminium will be found in June, 1951 issue of Industry.

739 U.T.A., Allahabad—Collapsible boxes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., 11, Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta.

740 G.U., Madras—Process of manufacturing rubber balloons will appear in due course. Process of manufacturing candles and tablets appeared in April 1950 issue of Industry.

741 A.P.W., Delhi—For rubber making appliances write to Rubber Sales Co., 156, Cornwallis Street; V. D. Agarwal, Peary Das Lane and A. K. Bhar, 30, Bonfield Lane; all of Calcutta. For rubber machine write to R. B. Brett & Son, 30, 31, Street, London E. C. 4 and Gordon & Co. Ltd., 75-79, Farringdon Street, London E. C. 4. For paper write to T. B. Allman, 42, F. Street, Edinburgh 2 and Gray James & Co., 16, Pilpot Lane, London E. C. 3.

743 S.C., Kumbakonam—We have received sample for Sambar powder. For more sambar powder you should advertise in papers.

744 C.M.H., Delhi—For tin chloride enquire of Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 94, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

746 M.J.M.S., Changanacherry—For aluminium cap enquire of the following: Aluminium Corporation of India Ltd., 9, Subhas Road; Aluminium Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 4, Fairlie Place and Jeewanlal (1929) Ltd., 31, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta.

—REVIEW OF BOOKS

DYNAMIC EQUIPMENT POLICY by George Ferbergh. Published by McGrawhill Book Company, Inc., New York. Pages 290.

There is a lamentable lack of readiness on the part of the Indian industrialists to renovate their factories to keep pace with the modern standards of production and output. Their general attitude is to tinker with the old buildings and machineries as long as possible and to scrap a machine only when it could no longer perform the job, for a machine was originally designed or when the repair charges on the machines outrun the short term profits these equipments were capable of yielding. It is quite possible during the life time of the installed equipment, all going on, new types of equipment better fitted to do the jobs and more economical have been introduced in the market and which are rivals to their organisations and which may contribute to the reduction of their cost of production and profit. In the presence of improved quality of their service may decline in comparison to available alternatives even when they do not deteriorate absolutely. Only on replacement is the question asked whether a new machine can do the job better and more economically than an existing one; or whether a complete layout involving, say, two new machines instead of three installed, would do the job more economically still. It is thus time for industrialists become a bit more re-equipment minded and study the advantages of a dynamic policy of re-equipment to place their factories on a thoroughly modern line.

Admitting that the challenger is the best machine of the time, it will also admit its operating inferiority at a constant rate during its service period and secondly, the challengers will have the same adverse effect as the present one. Because of these facts there is no determinable relation between challenger and defender that by itself can justify the present replacement. Still a start can be made with these standard assumptions in formulating a dynamic policy and deducing re-equipment policy of the analyst indicates.

The book under review attempts to develop a dynamic formula together with its short cut from the above mentioned assumptions and considers the various problems associated with replacement of rented equipment, replacement of ownership by lease, interest charge for replacement, rate of replacement, capital additions, etc. The subject is a difficult one. Replacement, is after all a complex operation, and a careful study for industrial advancement is necessary. Simplification is possible with standard assumptions as to the future; but a start may be developed for the full dynamic procedures. But notwithstanding the fact remains that a reliable job can be done with care and effort. Rationalization of this process offers to most concerns an enormous saving for the energy and expense involved.

The book is an attempt to restate the underlying theory of equipment policy with running criticism on the current practices, and explains with charts and examples the considerations that are to be taken into account in deciding upon a particular policy of equipment from the stand point of the economy as a whole.

OBJECTIVES AND MINIMUM STANDARDS OF SOCIAL SECURITY, REPORT IV. (1). Published by International Labour Office, Geneva. To be had of International Labour Organisation, New Delhi, Price Rs. 3/-.

With the end of the global war, the objectives of social security have been taking new shapes. There is a perceptible change in the outlook among almost all nations regarding the minimum standards of social security. It is desirable that international agreement is arrived at on the various questions arising on the various aspects of the subject. The nature of benefits to be conferred and the categories of beneficiaries under the schemes are also of primary importance. Moreover the financing and administration of the benefits are also points on which clarification is essential. Possibilities of achievements in highly developed countries as well as in the less developed countries also require careful consideration.

The protection of the population in contingencies covered by social security is developing along two main lines, viz.: (1) protection of all residents irrespective of economic status and (2) protection of all gainfully occupied persons and their dependents. Other benefits coming within the scope of social security are medical benefits, cash benefits, family benefits, donation of cash benefits, condition for right to benefit, right of appeal, etc., etc.

Another question of policy that arises in this connection concerning the form of administrative organisation necessary for setting up any social security scheme is whether administration should be retained in the hands of the State or should be delegated to autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies.

Modern ideas about these subjects on all their aspects have been discussed in the book. All those who are interested in studies on social welfare will find the book a most illuminating document.

ECONOMIC PLANNING by Seymour E Harris, Prof. of Economics, Harvard University. Published by the World Press Ltd., 37, College Street, Calcutta 12. Pages 577, price Rs. 12/6/-.

In the wake of the First Five Year Plan by Russia in 1928 followed by two others transforming the economic face of the country in a dramatic way, there has been a considerable stir about the efficacy of planned economy as an instrument for combating the various economic ills from which a country might be

suffering. The world-wide depression which started in 1929-30 accompanied by falling prices and rising unemployment under conditions restricting demand of commodity goods set many countries seriously thinking about economic programmes in contrast to planless society. The war just terminated with its attending devastations has again brought the question of economic planning to the front, and no country being now without its own problems of conservation and allocation of resources, reduced productivity, monetary instability, unemployment, inflationary spiral, exchange difficulties and unbalanced international payment, the pace of economic planning has received considerable momentum at present. The result has been that to-day there is no country worth the name which is without some sort of planned economy. Planned society is the order of the day now. All the important countries are now thinking in terms of regulation of productive processes, controls over consumption of commodities and inland and foreign trade, determination of targets of production, balance of distribution between production of essentials and non-essentials and thus are heading life from feudalism via capitalism to socialist stage of life.

The book under review makes a comparative study of the economic plans evolved in fourteen big countries of the world, viz. the United States, the United Kingdom, India, Germany, Greece, Japan, Norway, the Netherlands, France, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, U. S. S. R., the Argentine and gives a distinctive idea of the shape that planning has taken in those countries under stress of economic conditions and political awakening. The study is particularly useful in as much as it presents a vivid account of the progressive movements in those countries, and surveys the progress made so far there. Countries scheming planned economy can substantially profit by the perusal of the plans and their successes and failures and learn from their hard-earned experiences. The book however does not confine itself merely on the narration of plans in various countries but also analyses in a scholarly way the reasons behind the growing interest in all aspects of planning and the types evolved in each country.

Planning is going ahead in India, and indeed there is plethora of it. It is therefore desirable that we shall have full knowledge of the plannings in other parts of the world and their objectives and manner of operation. The book will fill thus a real need of the country in this respect and deserve careful reading.

NOTICES & REVIEWS

(Manufacturers sending specimens and samples of their products for notice and review may please note that no notice is published of medical preparations and allied substances in this section.)

FOUNTAIN PEN INKS

We have received from Bhivanendra Products Ltd., Katpadi, S. K., 5 phials of fountain pen ink of different shades, such as red, blue black, violet, green, and violet writing ink, which are found to be good.

We have also received from Octagon Stationery, 14, Raja Rajballav Street, Calcutta, 5 phials of blue-black fountain pen ink. The preparation is found to be satisfactory.

REPORT OF THE PATENT OFFICE.

We are glad to receive a copy of the Report of the Patent Office for the year 1930 which has just been published. The Report gives a brief survey of the trend of inventions during the period together with statistics of various proceedings under the Indian Patents and Designs Act and also Rules and other information regarding the activities of the Patent Office.

BULLETINS OF GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

We have received a copy of Bulletin of the Geological Survey of India by J. P. B. dealing with cement industry in India. The bulletin contains statistics of production and imports of cement in India. It also gives the types of Portland cement manufactured in India, specifications, major applications of cement in the construction of Dams, etc. The bulletin contains a map showing the distribution of suitable limestones in India for manufacture, and list of the cement manufacturing companies together with their annual production. The bulletin is published by order of the Government of India and is available at the office of the Manager, Publications, Delhi.

THE PUNJAB ON THE MARCH

We have received several copies of the pamphlets above issued by The Public Relations Department, Punjab. Each copy deals with a particular subject, such as Rehabilitation, Grow More Food; Education and Public Health; Industries and Civil Supplies; Improvement of Public Works Department; Welfare of the Common Man; Local Self Government; Jails and Campaign against Corruption; Social Projects; Veterinary, Fisheries and Agriculture, etc. These pamphlets are profusely illustrated to attract attention.

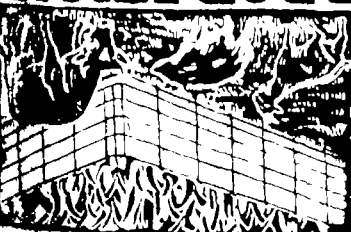
TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write him direct with name and address given below mentioning Industry.)

376 I.O., Khatri, No. 25-2/8, Danes Road, Colombo 11, Ceylon—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of velvet powder and imitation gold ornaments.

641 P.G. Gomez & Co., Chilaw, Ceylon—Want to be put in touch with suppliers and exporters of hemp fibre and hemp yarn and products of green manure called sunn hemp.

652 Umesh Paul, P. O. Palasbari, Kharagpur—Wants to be put in touch with the dealer in birds.



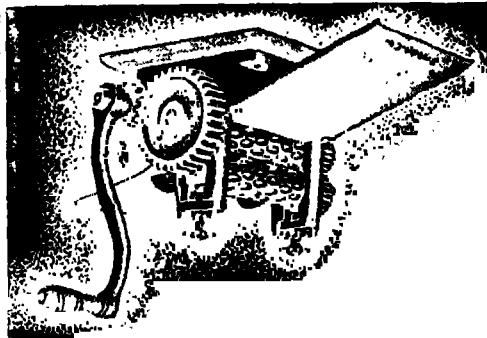
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Theory & Practice of Commerce and Business Organisation. By J. C. Mitra F.R.S. (London), F.R.E.S. -- -- --	Rs. 12-0
The Electrician by V. L. N. Row, B.Sc., (Eng.), A.M.I.E. -- -- --	Rs. 6-0
Apprentice Shop Practice by M. N. Swami -- -- --	Rs. 5-8
Sell What You Make—A Treatise on Marketing of Proprietary Articles in India. By P. A. Tyres Masseyk -- -- --	Rs. 5-6
Home Knitting by Rekha Banerjee -- -- --	Rs. 5-6
Safety Matches and Their Manufacture by K. C. Das Gupta -- -- --	Rs. 5-6
Free Lance by R. Dhara -- -- --	Rs. 4-0
Manufacture of Soap -- -- --	Rs. 4-0
How To Do Business by N. M. Banerjee -- -- --	Rs. 4-0
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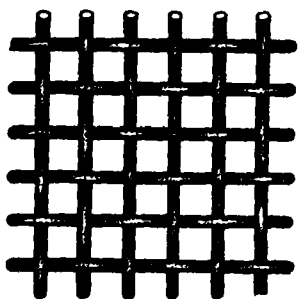
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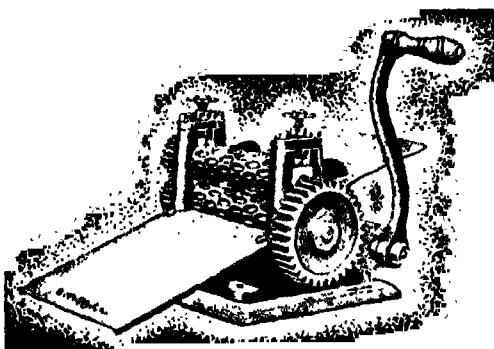
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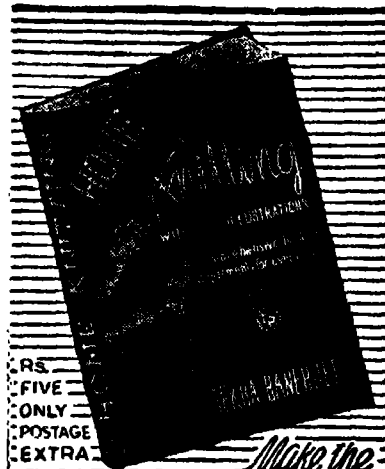
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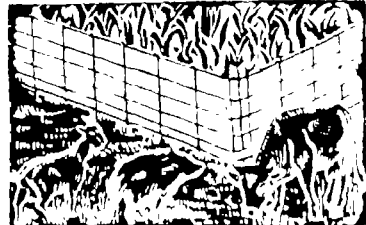
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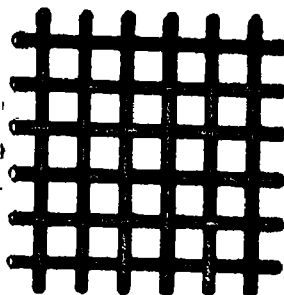
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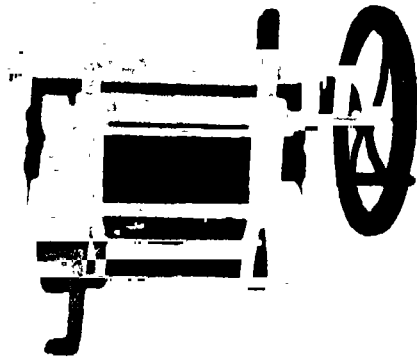
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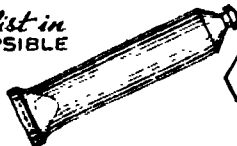
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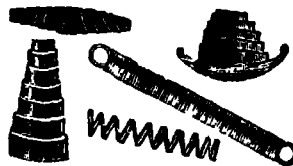
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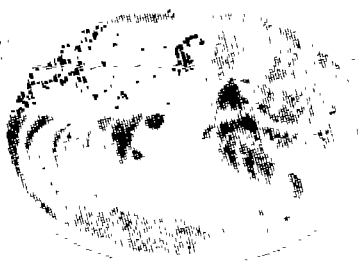
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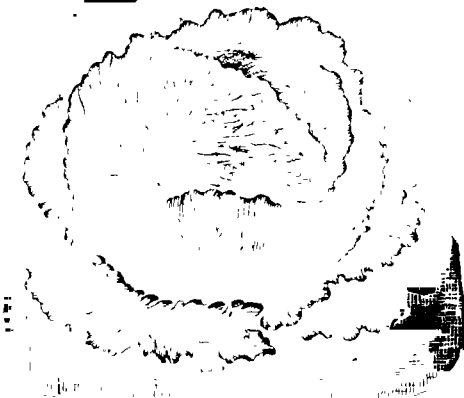
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Benares	2 0 0
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Benares	2 0 0
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Benares	1 8 0
Benares	2 0 0
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Benares	1 8 0
Benares	2 0 0
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Benares	1 0 0
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Benares	1 8 0
Benares	1 8 0
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Benares	1 8 0
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Red	0 12 0
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Anona reticulata (Nona)	0 8 0
Averrhoa Carambola (Kamrac)	1 0 0
Apple (Sew) Peshawar	1 0 0
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Bread fruit (Rutifa)	2 0 0
Cookie Punefata (Wampoe)	0 8 0
Carrissa Caranda (Karamcha)	0 8 0
Cicca Disticha (Nore)	0 8 0
Cashewnut (Badam) Kajoo	0 8 0
Cucumber Tree (Bhambi)	0 8 0
Custard Apple (Ata, Sharifa)	0 8 0
Date (Khejur) Arab	0 12 0
Dillenia speciosa (Chalta)	0 8 0
Fig (Anjir)	1 0 0
Grape Vine (Angeor)	0 8 0
Grewia Asiatica (Phalsa)	0 8 0
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Loquat Agra	1 0 0
Mulberry (Tutphal) Alba	1 0 0
Nephelium Longanum (Ampeach)	0 8 0
Prunus Domestica (Alucha)	0 8 0
Bokharensis (Alubakhra)	0 8 0
Pomegranate (Anar)	0 12 0
Peach Agra	1 0 0
Pear (Naspati) Peshawar	0 12 0
Tamarind (Imli, Tentul)	0 8 0
Olive (Jalpai)	0 12 0
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Acacia Catechu (Khadir)	0 8 0
Cardamomum (Elachi) Major & Minor	0 8 0
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Clove (Labanga)	1 0 0
Eucalyptus	0 12 0
Ferula Assafoetida (Hing)	1 0 0
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Piper Nigrum (Golmarlach)	0 12 0
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Names.	Each.	Rs.	As.	P.
Agati (Bak)	0	12	0	
Cestrum Nocturnum (Hasnahena)	0	8	0	
Gardenia (Gandharaj)	0	8	0	
Hibiscus Mutabilis (Sthal Padma)	0	8	0	
Hibiscus (Jaba):—				
Double—Red, Pink, Yellow, Blue,				
Orange	0	12	0	
Jasminum Grandiflorum (Chaneli)	0	8	0	
" Arbonscens (Nabomullika)	0	12	0	
" Jasmin	0	12	0	
" Auricalatum (Jocee)	0	8	0	
" Raye (Bela)	0	12	0	
" Matia (Bela)	0	8	0	
Ixora (Rangan) Alba	0	8	0	
" Kalirai	0	8	0	
" Rosea	0	8	0	
Magnolia Grandiflora	5	0	0	
" Pumila (Jahuri Champa)	1	0	0	
Michelia Champaka (Swarna Champa)	0	8	0	
" Alba (White) China Champa	1	0	0	

PALMS

Arica	0	8	0	
China	0	8	0	
Prichardia	1	8	0	
Bottle Palm	0	8	0	

CONIFERS (Jhadoo)

Aurcaria Cookii	3	0	0	
Juniperus	1	0	0	
Thuja (Pata Jhau)	0	12	0	
Chinensis	1	0	0	

CROTON

Assorted at our selection:—

	Per Dozn.	Rs.	As.	P.
Assortment "A"	8	0	0	
" "B"	6	0	0	
" "C"	5	0	0	

ROAD SIDE TREES

	Per Dozn.	Rs.	As.	P.
Azadirachta Indica (Neem)	8	0	0	
Cassia Assorted	8	0	0	
Dassia Fistula (Sondal or Amaltas)	8	0	0	
Grevillea Robusta (Silver Oak)	8	0	0	
Lagerstroemia Flos-Reginae (Jarul)	8	0	0	
Swietenia (Mahogany)	8	0	0	
Tectona Grandis (Teak or Saigon)	8	0	0	
A Collection of 12 useful assorted				
Timber and Avenue Tree (Our				
own selection	8	0	0	

SELECTED ROSE GRAFTS



	Each.	Rs.	As.	P.
American Beauty—Red	1	0	0	
Antony-Mouton—Rosy	1	0	0	
Advocate—Crimson	1	0	0	
Abrirot—Yellow	0	12	0	
Amie Vibort—White	1	0	0	
Beauty of Staple Ford—Deep Carmine	0	12	0	
Caroline De Ardon—Red	0	12	0	
Captain F. Bold—Red	1	8	0	
Duchess of Albany—Deep Rosea	1	0	0	
Etoile de France—Velvety	0	8	0	
Etoile de Lyon—Sulphur Yellow	1	0	0	
Elizabeth Vigniron—Pink	1	0	0	
Field Marshall—Velvety Crimson	0	12	0	
Frau Karl Drushki—Snow White	0	8	0	
Glory de Daucher—Deep Red	0	12	0	
Golden Fairy—White	0	12	0	
Gorgeous—Deep Orange	1	0	0	
Gruss an Tapliz—Scarlet Crimson	1	0	0	
His Majesty—Red	0	12	0	
Lady Hillingdon—Yellow	1	0	0	
Mrs. B. R. Cant—Deep Rosea	0	12	0	
Monte Christo—Dark Crimson	0	12	0	
Ophire—Pawn Salvon	0	12	0	
Paul Naron—Rosy	0	12	0	
Pearle de Lyon—Salmon Yellow	0	12	0	
Piere Notting—Blakish Red	0	12	0	
Rev. J. B. Camm—Pink	1	0	0	
William Allen Richardson—Orange	0	12	0	

Globe Nursery

NEW MARKET, COLLEGE ST MARKET, SEALDAR ST
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K. N. BANERJEE. _____

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INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

It is really disappointing to those who wished to see India making good progress towards development of industries over the length and breadth of the country that India has not practically been able to report any satisfactory progress during the last three years of independence. There might have been some improvement in production in certain industries but over the longer segment of their industrial structure, production has remained more or less stagnant.

The major problems which the industries both medium-sized and small-scale are confronting to-day are as follows :—

In India industries, as a matter of fact, have developed in a haphazard manner without context to the industrial possibilities and needs of the country, as justified by the available raw resources, technical skill, etc. There is a gruelling absence of a spirit of co-ordination and co-operation among the industrialists.

The industries are feeling great hardship in raising funds for the proper conduct of their business. The recent failures of small banks which extended them credit in the hour of their need have greatly undermined their position. There may be some extra money in the hands of some favoured people but unfortunately that money is not available for industrial use.

The cottage industries are living a precarious existence. Though there is an important school of thought in India that India must go the way Japan had gone towards the organisation of small industries it is regrettable that in India cottage industries stand disjointed and out of gear. The handicaps under which they are looking have greatly increased lately with the introduction of controlled economy.

There is no arrangement for long term financial needs of the country. The Industrial Finance Corporation which has been working for the last three years is not in a position to cope with full requirements it is called upon to fulfil. There is need for formation of capital organisations which will advance money to the people for the proper regional development of small scale industries.

(Continued on page 154)

DECENTRALIZATION OF SUGAR INDUSTRY

A survey of the sugar industry was recently made to investigate if it was feasible to shift the sugar industry from U. P. and Bihar to other areas such as Bombay or Madras. The Government of India indicated their readiness to give financial assistance for such advantageous locations but it appears that in the opinion of the Committee this is not practicable. It appears that, save for one or two transactions, as yet there has not been any sizeable effort to shift sugar factories. There may, however, be according to this survey, some scope for shifting of a few uneconomic factories in U. P.'s eastern districts to more suitable sites in west U. P.

A survey of conditions in Madras shows that factories in that area have an even lower recovery rate than in U. P. and Bihar. Cane supplies are widely dispersed and transport to the factory tends to be expensive. The soil requires a large number of waterings and even with the comparatively high yield of cane per acre, fair price for cane in Madras has been computed at Re. 1/8/- per maund, which is higher than the fair price suggested for U. P. and Bihar. The price factor is often more important to the sugar factory than merely yield per acre. Bombay was more

favourably situated in the past because of the Deccan canal system and availability of land for large scale farms. Such large farms may not now be feasible in view of the Government's land policy. Irrigation in Bombay is also difficult and tubewells do not appear to be practicable. Despite the high yield per acre, fair price for cane in Bombay was computed in 1919 by an expert committee at Re. 1/6/- per maund against the same price for Bihar and Re. 1/7/- for U. P. Further, the Bombay Government have already declared that, in the interest of balance between foodgrains and sugarcane, they would not be able to supply more water to sugarcane factory farms. On the whole it would appear that the sugar industry in U. P. and Bihar has a great future, provided adequate attention is given to development of cane and to making the industry efficient at all stages.

Government officials, technical experts and others directly connected with the sugar industry participated in the survey.

DEVELOPMENT PLANS OF STATES

The development plans of the States which constitute an important part of the Planning Commission's report are at present in the final stage of consideration.

(Continued from page 153)

Commercial policy followed by the Government is not based with an eye to internal requirements of the country but rather to her foreign exchange budget. The result has been that occasions are not rare when the essential raw materials for the industries are in short supply and that too in a most irregular way.

There is no sound organisation to co-ordinate the marketing side of the industries, to look to the production of articles, to control their quality and to introduce standardisation of goods. There is over and above no understanding between capital, labour and consumer. The spirit of swadeshi which moved the country a few years ago is also unfortunately absent.

It is therefore time that the Provincial and Central Governments and the public do think closely on these vital subjects affecting the progress of industries and general welfare of the State and make a co-ordinated plan that will put the industries on their legs.

by the Commission. Consideration of the State plans in the light of the available financial resources of the country and to integrate them into common national plan of India has been taken up by the Commission since April 10 last and so far the plans of Assam, Bombay, Hyderabad, Madhya Bharat, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Sindh, Rajasthan, Travancore-Cochin, Union, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal and the tribal areas of Assam have been discussed. The plans of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir State and Saurashtra and of Part C. states remain to be considered and they will be finalised shortly.

The development plans of the States have been classified by the Commission into six broad heads, viz. (1) agriculture and rural development; (2) major irrigation and power projects; (3) cottage and other industries excluding those which come in the private sector; (4) transport including roads; (5) social services including education, housing labour and their welfare etc., and (6) rehabilitation of displaced persons.

Agricultural schemes and irrigation and power projects which have a direct bearing on the food situation in the country have been considered in great detail, keeping in view their possible additional contribution to food production. In regard to other schemes of irrigation included in the State plans, the Commission has found that a number of irrigation and power projects have been launched in different parts of the country without adequate investigation of assessment of resources with the result that an avoidable loss has been caused on the available financial resources for development projects. It has proposed that a suitable machinery should be set up for exercising necessary scrutiny before new projects are commenced.

With the completion of the consideration of the State plans the Commission has finalised one important aspect of its work, namely, the programme in the public sector including the Centre and the States. In the other two aspects of planning which will be dealt with in the report, viz., (1) assessment of resources and recommendations on questions of policy and (2) proposals for the private sector

considerable progress has also been made. Detailed study of several industries with the representatives of the industries concerned has been made. These cover fertilizer, cement, cotton textiles, iron and steel, leather and leather goods, paper, glass, sugar, aluminium, agricultural implements and machinery. Rationalisation of the industry with its associated problem of rehabilitation of the retrenched personnel has also been considered.

The report is expected to be in two parts, one, dealing with the short term plans to be finalised by 1953-54 and the other a comprehensive Five-Year Plan ending 1955-56 which would cover a wide field involving questions of national policy. This would include recommendations for improvement in the public administration, machinery for the execution of plans at the Centre and the States, public co-operation, reorganisation of the system of agriculture, development of cottage and small scale industries, the future organisation of industry, conservation of mineral resources, development of irrigation and power, etc. etc.

LABOUR POLICY

The All-India Organization of Industrial Employers has urged review by the Planning Commission of the Government of India's Labour policy, with particular reference to legislation. It was said that such a review was warranted not only in the interest of industry but also in the interests of the country and labour. It is stated that while some labour laws had been intended mainly to consolidate and improve the existing legislation, most others had extended the scope of legislation to field which should normally be outside it. Legislation had been undertaken on such diverse matters as fixation of wages, settlement of disputes and the provision of social security to workers, etc.

The Organisation, therefore, felt that unless a thorough review of labour policy was made and it was adjusted to the general framework of the country's economy and the stage of economic development, the well-intended measures of labour legislation would have the unexpected yet the most natural result of putting a brake on India's economic

progress. On the psychological plane, the Organisation wanted the parties concerned to have an attitude of co-operation, as no useful purpose in its opinion, could be achieved unless both the parties realized their responsibilities more than their rights. It would be more in the interest of the country if the Government guided industry rather than directed it through elaborate legislative measures. The Communication further explained the difficulties the employers faced in implementing the Minimum Wages Act and the Employers State Insurance Act, and submitted that, while increased burdens were being placed on industry without regard to its capacity to bear them, the attitude of labour was not accommodating.

The Organisation therefore felt that if the provision of these facilities was enforced by legislation, those sections of the industry which were not much above the margin would have to close down. An aspect to be considered here was whether consumers could afford to pay the high prices resulting from enhanced labour cost.

AQUARIUM IN BOMBAY

India had great scope for the development of the fishery industry which is as important as the development of agriculture or dairy-farming to meet the requirement of food. The more so because India has an extensive sea-coast of about 4,000 miles and is endowed with numerous big rivers, lakes and legions of artificial tanks, big and small, all of which provide an excellent source of fish in these days of scarcity of food. It is for these reasons that the question of the establishment of an aquarium in Bombay had long engaged attention of many people during the past quarter of a century. It was long felt that such an institution would enable extensive and intensive research to be carried out in marine life which teemed in our waters and on which so many people were dependent for food. In fact, a marine biological station is a prime need in the training of all students who desire to have a true insight into the working of animal life. Some idea of the vast importance attached in Europe to marine biological work may be obtained from the large number of marine and fresh water stations which dot its coast-line.

France alone has about 26 and apart from those subsisting through Municipal or Government support, there are several conducted by private bodies such as the University of Montpellier. It is therefore heartening that an aquarium has been lately inaugurated in Bombay. It is housed in a two-storeyed structure, built at a distance of about 200 feet from the sea-wall, and contains varied species of inland and imported fishes. The bulk of the fishes have been specially imported from the Philippines, Java, Sumatra, Siam, Malaya, etc. The preponderant number of these exotic fishes come from Singapore in Malaya. All these imported varieties have been acclimatised to our waters where they have established themselves and are being bred.

The laboratories in the aquarium provide room for a dozen research workers. It has up-to-date facilities such as arrangements for the supply of pure sea and fresh water, products to ensure proper aeration, gas, paraffin baths, optical instruments.

PAINT INDUSTRY

The crisis now facing the paint industry in this country, particularly with regard to the procurement of essential materials from abroad, was referred to at the annual meeting of the Indian Paint Manufacturers' Association. It was pointed out that failure of the Government to liberalize its import policy earlier, and the delay by the Import Authorities in granting licences had resulted in the industry losing substantial supplies of raw materials in foreign markets. Citing the case of a particular ingredient used in the manufacture of paint it was said that as late as July and August last year it was available at between £. 40 and £. 50 per ton, but the present price of this ingredient was well over £. 100 per ton. It was therefore to be desired that the Government give greater assistance to the paint industries in their search for raw materials abroad, and that Indian Embassies and Trade Commissioners in various countries be instructed to act as the country's commercial agents abroad and to help the paint industries not only by obtaining information of the availability of raw materials

but also by introducing them to reliable parties overseas. The consensus of opinion was that a Central Marketing Organization should eliminate cut-throat competition which has affected the quality of products offered for sale.

THE EFFECTS OF INFLATION

At present, there was perhaps no economic problem of greater consequence to the country than what was generally referred to as inflation. The present international situation, leading to a re-armament drive and the accumulation of materials required for it, had resulted in a fresh wave of inflation. The position was one which called for careful thinking and handling. Dr. Mathai, the ex-finance minister of India, reverted to this vital subject in a speech recently delivered by him. He said that of the various remedies proposed for inflation, one of the simplest and perhaps the most orthodox, was increased taxation as a means of draining away surplus purchasing power. This remedy, however, was of doubtful utility even in the present circumstances of India. Neither direct nor indirect taxation at the levels they had already reached afforded scope for further expansion. Not only would it cut into possible savings which might be employed in productive investment, but in the case of large sections of the population, it would lower what was already an alarmingly low standard of living. The extension of banking facilities

in rural areas and the provision of further incentives for saving among agriculturists had possibilities which should be more fully explored. It was generally admitted that the final solution of the problem of inflation lay in increased production. The agricultural plans which were under consideration, were mainly concerned with bringing new lands under cultivation. In manufacturing industries production was slowing down partly for lack of materials but mainly because the plant and machinery, particularly during the war years, had been worked at a pressure which greatly intensified the wear and tear. It was impossible to replace worn-out plant and machinery to-day except at a cost several times higher than pre-war costs. He further added that better and more immediate results in the way of production would be secured if adequate facilities were provided immediately, for replacement of existing plant and machinery, rather than by setting up new units of production. It was further urged that the system of controls as obtaining now, did not provide a permanent solution for inflation but was only a means of temporarily suppressing some of its worst results. The inflationary potential remained just the same so long as the main factors underlying inflation were not removed. The result of the abolition of food control in December 1947 was a striking illustration of what would happen if controls were removed without a change in the basic factors of inflation.

NOTICE TO OUR READERS AND ADVERTISERS

An apology is due to our readers and advertisers for delay in bringing the current issue of Industry. It is caused by a long-drawn gas strike which cuts off completely our supply of gas for operating our composing machines. We marked time for some days in expectation of termination of the strike but as it still continues we had to resort to other arrangements for its issue.

We crave the indulgence of our readers and advertisers for this delay which is beyond our control.

—INDIAN SOILS & CROPS-II.

CHARACTERISTICS of the Indian soil and the ways and means of their improvement for extensive and intensive cultivation for crop production and suitability of different soils for different agricultural products were discussed in the 1st April issue.

The present article is devoted to a succinct description of the methods of cultivation of food and money crops. It is regrettable that due to limited space at our command it has not been possible to go into details about the modes of cultivation of all crops. We, therefore, confine our attention in this article to the more important of the crops grown in the country for domestic consumption or export.

RICE

RICE is the most important food crop. It is extensively cultivated in all the warmer parts of the globe. It is essentially a crop of damp semi-tropical or tropical countries. It thrives under every great diversity of climate and culture. It grows well in dry climates or at least very in comparison with Burmah, Bengal, and the Konkan districts of the Bombay presidency. The finest varieties and the largest yields per acre are produced in districts where there is a moderate degree of sunshine and a damp, warm atmosphere.

India has a very extensive area, on an average, considerably exceeding 70 million acres annually.

There are three different classes of rice paddy in Bengal, viz :—

- 1st -- Aus paddy, high land rice or summer crops,
- 2nd -- Aman paddy, transplanted rice, or autumn crops, and
- 3rd -- Boro paddy, very low land rice, or winter crop.

Each class is controlled by the water supply. On land that becomes dry in September, aus paddy is taken. The crop is sown broadcast in May, or it may be transplanted in June and will be ready for harvesting early in September. Each district has its own special varieties which are generally coarse grained. Finer

varieties of aus paddy grows extensively in Central Provinces but in Bengal it is not regarded so important as Aman variety. When there is a plentiful supply of water on the land in October aman paddy is taken. Seed is generally sown in seedbed in early June, the crop is transplanted out in the field in July, and the crop is harvested in December. Sometimes seed is sown broadcast in the field, but transplanting is the best method and gives the best outturn.

There are thousands of so-called varieties of this class of paddy, but most of the differences are due only to environment.

Boro paddy is not so important as the other two classes. Lands that flood from June or July to November are put under boro paddy when the flood subsides in December. Seed is sown in the seedbed in December, transplanted in January and the crop is ready for harvesting in two months. In North Bihar boro paddy is taken in the beds of rivers and streams when the water subsides. Boro paddy is generally coarse grained.

From the above it will be seen that paddy can be grown all the year round according to the water supply.

PREPARATION OF THE LAND

Five or six ploughings and two or three ladderings give the necessary tillage for sowing broadcast. For transplanted paddy the land is ploughed 2 or 3 times and puddle (out of the 6 ploughings) is tilled twice until the field has the consistency of soft mud when transplanting takes place. Boro paddy is treated like aman paddy.

SEED AND SELECTION THEREOF

Choose the variety that is best adapted according to the local demand and so that seed true to type is obtained. The seed should be clean, free from weed seeds, not weevil-eaten, plump and fresh. Old shrivelled seeds germinate slowly and produce weakly seedlings.

SOWING TIME

This depends on whether the paddy is aus, aman or boro. Aus is sown in May

transplanted in June. Aman paddy should be sown in seedbed in the first of June. This date is very important in order that the seedlings may be planted by the middle of July. Every year after the 15th of July acts against a high outturn being obtained and day after the 15th July increases the danger from drought or flood. But in Bengal this date is not the limit of time because its climatic condition is different from other places. Boro paddy may be sown and transplanted in October, December and January according to the supply of water and risk of

QUANTITY OF SEED

In broadcasting, the quantity of seed is determined by the fineness of the grain. 10 seers of a fine grained paddy and 15 seers of a coarse grained paddy are sufficient seed per acre. In transplanting 15 seers of seed, either coarse or fine grained paddy, sown on 1/15th of an acre, give sufficient seedlings to transplant 1 acre of land.

In transplanting it has been found that 1 seedling every 8 to 10 inches gives a better outturn than 2, 4 or 8 inches.

MANURES

The following manures are generally used in cultivating paddy:—

- (1) 50 maunds of cowdung, or
- (2) 6 maunds of castor cake per acre, or
- (3) green manure with dhaincha.

The first may be employed by everybody but the second should be learnt by heart by the cultivator. Of course, there are other manures, but the kinds and quantities should be tried carefully first before using large quantities on large areas.

Cowdung or castor cake should be applied before ploughing in puddle. Dhaincha (6 seers per acre) should be sown in April or May according to rain fall and covered under (green manured) at the time of puddling the land for transplanting. If the accumulation of water is too much and surface damage too free manure should be applied. But the manures are not to be washed out during very heavy

rainfall, and these must be compensated by the addition of oil-cake, cowdung or tank-earth. Saltpetre is not employed as a manure in Bengal, though in regions of short rainfall, this manure is suitable for all kinds of paddy.

AFTER CULTIVATION

After cultivation with aman paddy consists simply of weeding once (generally) by means of the *Khurpi*.

With aus paddy one or two weedings are given. Sometimes the crop is partially ploughed. This loosens the soil and gives the paddy plant a better chance of spreading the roots and of tillering. Weeding is also thereby facilitated.

HARVESTING

The crop is harvested when the straw turns yellow or becomes dead ripe. Aus paddy should not be allowed to get too ripe. It sheds more brittle than aman straw, and it easily gets broken. This is another reason for cutting aus while it is still somewhat green. The corn is cut close to the ground and left in parallel lines in the field for about one week. Afterwards sheaves are made, and 100 to 150 sheaves stooked together, and soon after threshed in the threshing.

WINNOWER

At threshing time the larger part of the straw is removed and what is left is composed of grain, chaff, small bits of straw and dirt. Winnower simply consists of allowing the mixture of grain and chaff to fall 5-6 feet on a windy day where the grain falls, and in falling, the chaff, being lighter, is blown away from the grain. In this manner the grain can be perfectly cleaned. The experience the cultivators have of cleaning their grain with the help of nature is really wonderful.

In Western countries threshing and winnowing are performed together by means of the steam thresher.

Threshing and winnowing machines are invented for cleaning grain, but in Bengal we are not yet convinced of its necessity for the small cultivator. It would mean capital expenditure which Indian cultivator requires for other things first. When our cultivators work on co-operative

basic improved implements for harvesting, threshing and winnowing may come into vogue.

STORING

The methods of storing grain in vogue amongst the cultivators are also simple in the extreme, and yet, wonderful to relate, they keep the grain dry and sound.

Some make ropes of straw and make these ropes of straw into balls, 1 yard in diameter, with paddy in the inside. These balls are stored in their houses. The grain is kept in perfect condition in these balls.

Other cultivators build houses of straw or bamboos on stilts to keep them above the water level in times of flood and the grain is kept in excellent condition.

Other cultivators use earthen jars. These are filled with grain and then covered up with a lid and the lid is made water-tight and air-tight by means of cowdung plaster. If before closing the lid a piece of cotton were dipped in carbon bisulphide and placed inside the jar, these jars would be perfect so far as the storing of grain is concerned.

WHEAT

After rice, very nearly the largest area cropped in India is wheat. Its cultivation is prehistoric in the old world. It is grown best in the drier parts of the temperate zone, but its limits of growth are wide, and the varieties in cultivation are so numerous that some are adapted to grow in any country outside the Arctic limits. In India approximately 30 million acres are cultivated with wheat, mostly in Northern Provinces and States. The young seedlings of the hardier varieties are not killed by frost, but frost or cold causes damage when the crop is approaching maturity.

VARIETIES

There are several species and many varieties of wheat, but it will suffice here to mention the Muzaffarnagar white, Buxar white and red deshi (U. P.) varieties. They are all good.

IRRIGATION

The dry and cold winter is favourable for the growth of wheat and that the moist warm places are unsuitable for growing this crop, with the exception of a few sandy

tracts, the value of irrigation for wheat is doubtful in Bengal, and the crop in these soils is usually raised without irrigation. The advantage in favour of irrigation is great in the U. P. and the Punjab. In the former, the average yield of wheat in an irrigated area is 800 lbs. and in an unirrigated area 6280 lbs. per acre; and in the Punjab 576 lbs. in unirrigated area and 117 lbs. in irrigated area. In Bombay the difference is still greater in favour of irrigation, 1250 lbs. per acre being the yield of irrigated against 510 lbs. the yield of unirrigated area. The difference in the M. P. is about the same as in the case of the Punjab.

SOIL

Clay-loam, easy of irrigation, is the best soil in a dry locality, is the best soil to choose for wheat. Sandy loams are also utilized for growing wheat, especially dearth of new alluvial lands, where mixtures of wheat and barley or wheat and mustard or linseed are commonly taken. The best crops of wheat are grown on lands newly brought under canal-irrigation. Where canal-water is used for irrigation for a number of years the outturn is found to fall off even below the original level. This is due (1) to excessive use of water for irrigation which washes away valuable food-constituent and brings up to the soil undesirable soluble salts, and (2) exhaustion caused by the taking of heavy crops at first without manure.

SELECTION OF SEED

Choose the variety that is desired and see that a clean plump sample of seed, free from foreign and weevil eaten grain is obtained, and make sure that the percentage of germination is satisfactory. At harvest time mark the strongest and healthiest plants and place them at one side to give the requisite seed supply for the following year.

TIME OF SOWING

The time to sow the wheat crop is in October and November according to the supply of moisture in the soil.

QUANTITY OF SEED

The quantity of seed required is 50 to 60 seers per acre.

CULTIVATION

Shortly, the land is to be ploughed and cross-ploughed, first with the country

ough or some improved plough and then cultivated with the grubber, as often as convenient, and operations commenced as soon after the rains are over as possible. Then by ploughing, cross-ploughing, grubbing, harrowing, and rolling, land has been prepared deeply and thoroughly (all the operations following close one upon another, that there may be no undue loss of moisture), seed should be sown by drilling. At least a fortnight's time must be allowed for the proper aerification of soil between the first ploughing and the sowing. Rolling or laddering is done after each operation there will be little loss of moisture in a fortnight's time soon after the operations are over. Deep cultivation is advisable for the wheat crop, hence grubbing is recommended. Sowing should be done after the cold weather properly sets in, i.e., somewhat later than when barley and other rabi crops are sown. The middle of November is ordinarily the best time for sowing in Bengal. In rocky and laterite soils sowing should be done earlier, say about the 20th or 25th October, or earlier still if the rains cease early in October. About 80 lbs. of seed are commonly used per acre, but this is too much. 50 lbs. are quite enough. After sowing, the field should be divided out into irrigation-beds by scraping up little banks of earth with a wooden shovel may very well be introduced to practice in Bengal for making little irrigation-beds. If the soil is too dry, it should be irrigated before sowing. Three or four irrigations altogether are ample for dry cultures; but one or two irrigations are usually required, though in moist tracts irrigation may be altogether dispensed with in the wheat and barley crops. In such facts, however, wheat does not do well. Here the natural climatic conditions in Bengal are exceptionally favourable, no irrigation may be required. One hand-watering should be done within a week or two days after the first watering. Two waterings with the American wheel-hoe may be given afterwards to promote the growth of the crop.

MANURING

If the wheat crop is generally not manured. The manure is applied to the other crops in the rotation. If manures are applied they are spread before sowing the wheat. The average outturn per acre is very

small in India, in comparison with England and the crops well respond to manuring. The following may be applied with economy:

- (1) 80 maunds cowdung or
- (2) 80 maunds pondrette (night soil).

Applications of 1 maund of saltpetre have given excellent results in India. The quantity of saltpetre required is $1\frac{1}{2}$ maund per acre (top-dressed). If the land is found to be poor $1\frac{1}{2}$ maund of bonemeal should be used beforehand at the time of ploughing, though no immediate benefit will be derived from such application. Five maunds of oil-cake may be used instead. But better immediate effect will be obtained from the saltpetre. The best manure to apply varies much, however, with the locality, and no general statements can be made. No manure is required for dearth land which is annually renovated with silt.

ROTATION

Juar or other millets and wheat are commonly grown in rotation, though both are grain-crops. Juar and barley being surface feeders may be grown together or successively with wheat which is a deep-rooted crop. But better result would be obtained from Kulthi, or Bhadoi Mung, or Bhadoi Kalai being grown before wheat. Lentils or gram grown along with wheat is, theoretically speaking, not a bad practice as the leguminous crop supports the wheat-crop and prevents exhaustion of soil; but mixed crops with wheat are found to be undesirable for more than one reason.

AFTER CULTIVATION

After cultivation consists of 1 or 2 weedings with the khurpi and 1-3 irrigations according to the locality. In several districts irrigation is not necessary. If rain falls and the soil surface becomes caked run the bhida across the land 2 or 3 times to get the necessary mulch to retain the soil moisture.

HARVESTING

Wheat harvest should be commenced after the grains are quite ripe and the straw quite dry and crisp.

Now to obtain a successful outturn the points should be observed.

(1) The seed should be of the best variety suited to the locality in which it is grown; (2) a rust-resisting variety should be chosen; (3) the soil should be deeply cultivated, as deeper cultivation is required for wheat than for rice, barley, and oats; (4) saltpetre should be used for top-dressing; (5) it should not be sown mixed with other crops, and the seed used should be unmixed and select, and the threshing should be as clean as possible; (6) sowing should not be done until the cold weather fairly sets in, barley and oats being sown earlier in the season; (7) if there is not sufficient moisture at the time, land should be irrigated and bakhared afterwards before sowing; (8) wheat should be twice irrigated, if possible, in wheat districts proper, and the sites chosen for wheat land should therefore be close to water; (9) harvesting should be done after the grain is thoroughly ripe; (10) grain should be stored so that there may be complete protection against weevils. Paddy and oats are not so subject to the attack of weevils as wheat, and cultivators often find their wheat seed completely destroyed by weevils at sowing time, and their sowing of wheat seed results always in more or less partial germination; (11) Wheat seed should be sown after picking, to avoid smut, insect-pests, and damage by birds.

The subject of storing of grains against weevils and pickling will be discussed in the part devoted to Insect and Fungus Pests.

BARLEY

Barley is grown to a small extent all over India and chiefly in the Uttar Pradesh either by itself, or mixed with wheat, or gram, or with peas, or lentils.

CULTIVATION

Barley is grown to a small extent all over India and chiefly in the Uttar Pradesh either by itself, or mixed with wheat, or gram, or with peas, or lentils. The most favourite mixture is barley and gram. Barley and wheat as a mixture is not so popular, but barley as surface feeder and wheat as a mixture is not so popular, but barley as surface feeder and wheat as a sub-soil feeder may be grown together in rich soils. Rape (*Brassica campestris*), mustard (*Brassica vunea*), taramani or tiramira (*Eruca sativa*), and linseed are

also grown along with barley. Lighter is preferred for barley than for wheat. The land is prepared, and the seed sown a little earlier in the season than wheat, unless they are sown together. About 100 lbs. of seed are used per acre. A little more seed is required for barley than for wheat, but 100 lbs. per acre is too little an allowance. Seed properly stored and protected against weevils germinates properly and smaller quantities of such seed are sufficient; 60 to 70 lbs. of barley seed are ample to sow an acre. Barley is a drier crop than wheat and it does not require the same amount of weeding and irrigation and it is not so subject to rust. It can also be grown more successfully in drier climates than wheat, which does not do well in warm and moist regions as barley does. One hoeing with the Amer (Planet Jr.) wheel-hoe and one manure with 1 maund of saltpetre per acre may be applied with great advantage when the plants are above six inches high. In Bar no irrigation is practised for barley. Harvesting should be done earlier than for wheat, i.e., before the grains are very ripe. The cut sheaves may be made to stand on their ears upwards, near the threshing floor, when the grains are quite dry they can be threshed or failed out.

MAIZE OR INDIAN CORN

The maize or Indian corn is one of the most valuable cereals and is cultivated at present in all parts of the world. In remote antiquity however it was not known in the Old World but exclusively grown by the Peruvians and Mexicans. It has, however, been found suitable for Indian soil and is now grown successfully in the cold hills of Sikkim and Bhutan, as well as in the hot and arid soil of Marwar and Singhbhum. It does well in the moist climate of Bengal and in the dry climate of Uttar Pradesh, Rajputana, and the Punjab forming a principal article of diet for the poor.

Maize plant is a tall, annual grass reaching a height of 6 to 8 feet, and has a solid stem which, when young, contains a large amount of sugar. The leaves are large, with a wavy margin, and vary in colour according to the variety of maize. The flowers are of two kinds, viz., the male flowers, borne at the end of stalk, and the

the flowers, protected by the bases of leaves forming a "Cob" with a silky plume of stigmas hanging at end. The female flowers are nated by the wind, which scatters loose, dry pollen on to the thread-like nas. The cob varies in length from 11 inches, and contains 8 to 24 rows of closely packed grains.

CLASSIFICATION

As already indicated originally maize came from America to India. There are now regular Indian types but the wing three varieties are generally grouped :—

1. Large-cobbed dry grain variety producing yellow grains.
2. The class that produces sweet and large green cobs, usually white, for roasting or boiling purposes.
3. The class that gives the best "popped Corn" (khali).

White, yellow, red and black varieties also distinguished, and then there is further distinction between kharif and rabi, also between those which take about 3 months growing and those which take as many as six.

CORN FLOUR

Maize grain, both green and dry, cooked and uncooked, is somewhat difficult to digest. But made into meal and cooked, it is easily digested. Corn-flour is manufactured by first steeping the maize in hot water and then grinding it between large stones. The pulp is then passed through sieves into huge vats where the gluten settles, the gluten remaining in the supernatant.

MANURING AND ROTATION

Maize is an exhausting crop and it requires heavy manuring or very good soil to obtain a better yield. Carrots are usually sown in Uttar Pradesh between the first and second crops of rabi maize, while the maize is still standing, especially when the crop is threatened. The leaves of the maize are given to cattle and the roots are used by people. In years of heavy rain-fall, poppy, mustard or safflower may be sown. But wheat or barley is often sown after maize, though it is against the principle of rotation of crops to do so. In

some parts of the Punjab three crops are taken in succession in the same year from the same land. Melon is grown after wheat or barley is off the ground in March and land is prepared early in July for the maize crop as by then the melon crop is over.

SOIL

As the maize prefers deep, rich, warm, and well-watered soil for its successful growth the nature of the soil is an important factor to be considered first. The hilly regions of the Darjeeling district are especially suited for growing high class maizes. In Lohardaga, Singhbhum, Manbhum, and in Bihar districts also, large crops of maize are cultivated. The damp alluvial lowlands of Bengal are not so suited for this crop, if it is intended for grain. But homesteads, throughout Bengal, where no waterlogging takes place, are well adapted for growing maize for green cobs.

CULTIVATION

The usual season for sowing the seed is about the beginning of the rains, even in the hills. After a good shower of rain, the land already ploughed up once in the winter months should be ploughed and harrowed. The ground being thus prepared and manured, drills may be made 3 feet apart the seed of the best variety sown about 2 to 3 inches deep and about 6 inches apart, the seedlings being afterwards thinned out to distances about 12 inches; or 3 or 4 seeds may be sown together, in holes about 12 or 15 inches apart, afterwards thinning out the weaker plants when a few inches high. In rich soil wider spacing is necessary. About 3 or 4 seers of seed is thus required to sow an acre. When the plants have grown 1½ to 2 ft. high one hand-weeding should be given. If the soil is found too dry 3 days after sowing and no rain is immediately expected, it is safe to irrigate the land once. Early sowing with irrigation, if necessary, gives much better result than late sowing when no irrigation is required owing to the monsoon being in full swing. Heavy rain does the greatest harm to maize plants when they are yet of small size. No harm is done to maize plants by heavy rains if the plants have in the meantime attained the height of 9 to 18 inches. If

Irrigation is easy, it is better to sow the seed in April or May just after a good shower of rain, as the draught subsequent to a free germination is not so injurious to maize plants which are deeprooted plants, and irrigation may be resorted to if there is prolonged draught. After one hand-weeding, two hoeings would give the plants a very good start. The use of saltpetre would be of further benefit. If the land is known to be poor, cow-dung or some other general manure, applied in the cold weather or before sowing would give better results.

OUTPUT

It is more profitable to sell the green cobs and use the stalks for fodder wherever there is a demand for them than to let the grain ripen. The cobs can be picked and sold in June, and August. If they are allowed to mature, harvesting should be done in September, or when the grains are quite red ripe and dry. In Bihar sowing generally takes place in July and harvesting from October to December according to variety. Ordinarily 5 to 8 maunds of grain per acre is considered a fair yield, but 30 or 40 maunds are occasionally obtained.

JUTE

Jute is an annual plant that is cultivated for its fibre. It requires about the same soil and climate as rice, but it cannot stand water-logging. There are two species of jute, viz :

Corchorus Capsularis and
Corchorus Olitorius.

Corchorus Capsularis has rounded capsules (fruits). *Corchorus Olitorius* has long pads (fruits). Of these two species, many so-called varieties are grown. *Corchorus Capsularis* appears to be generally green stemmed, while *Corchorus Olitorius* is either red-stemmed or green-stemmed. This appears to be the case throughout Bengal. A green-stemmed *Capsularis* or a red-stemmed *Olitorius* should be chosen as giving the best results. Jute requires plenty of moisture to grow well, but it cannot stand water-logging. It grows well on all soils, either high-lying or low-lying, provided the requisite water is obtained.

PREPARATION OF THE LAND

The requisite tilth for sowing is obtained by 7-8 ploughings and three ladderings. Manure is applied just before sowing the seeds.

SELECTION OF SEED

Good clean shiny seed of the variety required should be selected for sowing. Strong healthy plants should be selected in the field for the production of the seed supply for the following year. Before sowing, the seed should be subjected to a germinating test and 90 per cent. germination should be obtained.

TIME OF SOWING

The best time for sowing jute seed is immediately after the first showers of April and May, so that the plants may be strong enough to withstand the heavy rains of June and July.

QUANTITY OF SEED

In cultivating jute generally 11 seers of seed per acre is required provided the seed germinates at least 90 per cent.

CULTIVATION

The seed should be sown by drilling only nine inches apart, so that hoeing with wheel-hoe or bullock-hoe may be done. Hoeing at least once should be done after sowing when the plants are well up, and if possible, one hand-hoeing and one wheel-hoeing or bullock-hoeing the two operations before the rains set in regularly, when wheel or bullock-hoeing will not be feasible, or the wheel or bullock-hoeing may be done when the land is not too wet, and the weeds pulled up with hand when the rains have set in properly. Care should be taken to use the *bidia* after germination to loosen the soil and uproot extra plants.

MANURE

The following manurial applications have proved economical in Bengal and they should be noted :—

- (1) Sixty eight and a half maunds of cowdung or
- (2) Seven maunds of castor cake.

AFTER-CULTIVATION

The after-cultivation consists of the *bidia*-rings, one thinning, two weedings and

or two waterings (if necessary) depending to the degree of moisture of the soil. The crop is then ready to be cut in the middle of August and the process of ginning commences.

HARVESTING

The jute plants are generally cut with a sickle, but in very low-lying lands simply pulled. In either case the plants are made into bundles and left on the field for two

STEEPING OR RETTING

The fibre is found on the outer layer of the stem and is mixed with gum and other soluble matter which must be removed. The process of removing these is called steeping.

The bundles of jute are placed in a pit (or pit) of gently running water and kept under water by means of bamboos or other stakes. Some people plant bamboos against the stream to prevent the bundles being washed away. Bacteria which live upon the fibre are contained in the hard rapidly fermenting mud. After 10 to 20 days after being in water the process is complete. The bundles now are taken out of the water and the fibre is extracted by heating the bundles with a stick and stripping off the fibre from the pitch which is left behind. This process is called stripping. The fibre is then cleaned by washing in clean water. This cleaned fibre is then taken out and placed on bamboos in the sun to dry. When dry, the fibre is made into bales and is ready for the market.

SUGGESTION FOR IMPROVEMENT

The following directions have been suggested by experts for improving the yield of jute :—

- (1) Thin sowing ;
- (2) Reservation of a portion of crop for seed which should be allowed to mature fully ;
- (3) Harvesting when pods have begun to form ;
- (4) Proper preparation of soil ;
- (5) Experimentation of seed with some district where soil and climate are somewhat different.

SUGARCANE

The sugarcane is a perennial grass with thick solid jointed juicy stems reaching a height of 8 to 12 feet. The stem

is a cylinder and ending in a slender hollow top which bears the flowers. The roots are fibrous and wide spreading, either keeping near the surface of the soil or going deep down. In loose soil they strike straight down to a great depth. The larger fibres fix the plant, while the smaller ones which are very numerous are the feeding roots. Hence it will be understood at once that in order to obtain a good crop the soil should be prepared with extra care in order to give the roots the best possible chance. The sugar is contained in the stem. When young the stem is carefully protected by a sheath of rather coarse leaves. The sugarcane has so many enemies, not only insects always on the look-out for secret things, but even carnivorous animals have a weakness for the sweet juice, and jackals, wild pigs, and monkeys have to be guarded against. The joints are called nodes and the smooth portions between them are called internodes. Leaves which look like blades grow laterally and are alternate. The green cells of the plant prepare under the influence of the sun most of the sugar which when ready is stored in the stem.

VARIETIES

There are many varieties of sugarcane in India. Some are thick stemmed, others are thin stemmed ; some are draught resisters, others can put up with lots of water ; some are soft skinned, while others are hard ; some are very long stemmed, while others are short. These names are as follows :—Malabari, vansi, bhuri, shoj-bhuri, songadi, kali, judi, deogadi, mahim yellow-green, green mauritius, bullu kaffu, red mauritius, etc.

PREPARATION OF LAND

The land must be ploughed, cross ploughed, and laddered till a fine tilth is obtained. This is obtained by 8-10 ploughings and 4-5 ladderings.

If the sets are planted on the plough furrow, this is all the preparation the land gets. If the ridge and furrow system of planting is adopted, the land is drawn up into furrows 2½" wide separated by ridges 2½" wide. These furrows are laid according to the level of the land, so that irrigation is easy. If the Poona bed system of planting is adopted, the land is laid out in beds 10 feet square with irrigating wide

parated by furrows $2\frac{1}{2}$ " wide. If the auritius pit system is adopted when the necessary tilth is obtained the land is set it with pits (1 foot deep and 1 foot in diameter) three feet apart each way.

SELECTION OF SEEDS OR CUTTINGS

Choose the variety that is wanted and such that strong healthy sets are obtained. Each set should have at least 2 internodes, 3 nodes and must contain buds. The seed is best selected at harvest time. Take the strongest and healthiest canes when preparing for the crushing mill and cut off the tops for planting purposes. These tops are of very little value for crushing and are excellent for seed.

TIME OF SOWING

The best time for sowing cane is when the cane is being harvested. Harvest the cane, and carry the canes to the crushing mills after, which the extra men can best be employed in planting the next year's crop.

Accordingly December, January, February and March are the months for planting cane. The earlier the cane is sown the better, in order that the cane may be well established before the hot weather sets in.

QUANTITY OF SEED

The quantity of seed required per acre depends upon the method of planting. Planting on the plough furrow requires an enormous number of sets in comparison with the ridge and furrow system of planting. If whole canes are employed for planting, more sets will be required than if only parts of the stem (sets) are used. If the land is badly infested by white ants, whole canes should be planted. This gives food for the white ants, while the young roots are taking root, after which flooding the land keeps the white ants in check.

The number of sets planting in the plough furrow on an acre of land can easily be worked out. Each line is 9 inches apart and sets are planted 1 foot apart in a line ($66' \times 132' = \frac{1}{2}$ th acre). In the ridge and furrow system of planting there are two rows in every 5 feet. In short, planting on the plough furrow requires three times more seed is required than that of the ridge furrow system. In

this ridge and furrow system 17,160 sets are required per acre.

PICKLING

As sugarcane is very much subject to the attack of insect and fungus pests, it is important to sow the cuttings or seedlings after pickling, i.e., after fungicides. But as these substances even when used in a dilute form are generally injurious to vegetable cells, it is best to dry the cuttings or seedlings with which the cuttings or seedlings are smeared immediately afterwards with such manurial substances as have some effect in keeping out insects etc. Thus half a pound of powdered sulphate of copper is mixed up with 100 lbs. of hot water and if 8 ounces of powdered white arsenic with 1 lb. of lime are added to the vat containing the sulphate of copper solution, the sugarcane cuttings can be dipped in this insecticidal and fungicidal mixture, immediately before planting, but the cuttings after being dipped in this liquid mixture should have a coating of powdered castor-cake (100 lbs.), ashes (2 lbs.) and soot (1 lb.), that the growth of the young plant may be helped by these manurial substances. If sulphate of copper is not available 1 lb. of alum may be used in place of $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of sulphate of copper for making the fungicidal solution. Half an ounce of asafetida may be mixed with every 100 lbs. of the fungicidal solution, as the strong smell of asafetida keeps out most insects. The mixture should be used up the same day that it is made. The quantities mentioned will suffice for pickling cuttings required for 1 acre of land.

ROTATION

Except in the case of a ratooned variety, sugarcane should not be grown on the same land more than once in 4 years. It is best to grow sugarcane after a preparatory crop of Dhaincha, sunn-hemp, or barbate (vigna catiang), cut down when in flower, in August. A crop of potatoes may be grown from October to February, and the land immediately afterwards get ready for planting sugarcane in February.

MANURING

Sugarcane responds well to a heavy outlay on manures. The following mixtures may be recommended :—

(1) Bone-meal	--	10	maunds	per	acre	applied before sowing.
Castor-cake	--	30	"	"	"	applied after sowing, in
						two doses.
(2) Cowdung	--	600	"	"	"	ploughed in before
						trenching.
Bone-meal	--	10	"	"	"	before sowing.
(3) Poudrette	--	350	"	"	"	before sowing.
(4) Powdered apatite	--	6	"	"	"	applied before sowing.
Castor-cake	--	20	"	"	"	applied after sowing in
						two doses,
Saltpetre	--	2	"	"	"	applied in two doses
						after the plants are a
						foot high, but before
						June.
(5) Castor cake	--	35	"	"	"	applied in two doses
						before the two earth-
						ings.
(6) Fish manure	--	30	"	"	"	after sowing.
(7) Safflower cake	--	30	"	"	"	before and after sow-
						ing.
(8) Rape cake	--	50	"	"	"	before and after sow-
						ing.
(9) Superphosphate of						{ A handful being put
lime	--	5	"	"	"	
Sulphate of ammo-						
nia	--	1½	"	"	"	
Sulphate of potash	--	1½	"	"	"	when about 1 ft.
						high.

AFTER-CULTIVATION

The after-cultivation of the sugarcane consists of :

- 7 Hoeings with kodali, March to June.
- 2 Weedings, April, May and June.
- 1 Levelling with kodali in June and
- 10 Irrigations (1 in December, 1 in March, 2 in April, 3 in May, 1 in June and 2 in November).

HARVESTING

When there is little moisture in the land when the top leaves have begun to fall, the canes should be considered for cutting. The cultivator may also judge the sweetness of the juice. If too much time is wanted in judging whether the canes are quite ready for cutting or not, excessively hot and dry weather may retard the progress of the harvest, and then the yield of juice will be reduced. The canes are cut close to the ground. If stumps are allowed to be kept in the ground, poor shoots will come out and yield a poor return next year.

TOBACCO

In treating of tobacco it is not sufficient to restrict oneself to the question of manuring, for so much depends upon the soil in producing tobaccos of different market values, and the price rests still more on the treatment of the leaf after the harvesting.

SOIL

A light soil or sandy loam, well drained, containing an average amount of organic matter and rich in mineral matters is considered to be best suited for tobacco cultivation. Grown on clay soils, the leaf becomes too coarse and inferior in quality, but clay soils usually give heavier yields. Sandy loams, rich in organic matter, produce a better sort of tobacco of the kind fit for making cigars.

Tobacco is sometimes grown after jute or maize has been harvested, but very often it forms the only crop of the year. Properly manured, it can be grown for 3 or 4 years successively on the same ground.

SEED-BED

The soil of the seed-bed is dug up with a spade and manured with rotten cowdung and ashes and then raised about six inches. When the ground has been well pulverised and levelled, seed is drilled thin, so that the seedling may have about one inch of space around it. After sowing, the seed is lightly covered up with earth. The seed-bed is kept covered with mats until germination takes place. Seed is generally sown in the first week of September or earlier in Bihar and Chota Nagpur. In dry laterite soil it is best to do the sowing early, i.e., about the second or third week of August. Half an ounce (1-1/6 tola) of seed is to be sown to produce plants required for one acre; but loss invariably occurs owing to patches of seedlings growing too thick. It is therefore advisable to grow seedlings from one ounce of seed for one acre of land.

PREPARATION OF SOIL

The soil for tobacco-planting should be prepared during the months of September and October. Eight to ten ploughings are necessary. Deep cultivation and thorough pulverisation of the soil are most important. The soil should be liberally manured with well-rotted cowdung and ashes. It is then to be levelled with a light harrow. It is needless to say that even poor soil can be made to produce a good crop by proper tillage and heavy manuring. Soils destitute of potash, unmanured soils, or soils manured with flesh, bones, calcium chloride, magnesium chloride, or potassium chloride, produce a bad burning tobacco which is unsuitable for making cigars. The use of cowdung also should be avoided in raising tobacco for the manufacture of cigars. Potassium carbonate, saltpetre, potassium sulphate, and calcium sulphate (gypsum) are the best manures for tobacco intended for cigars. They give to the leaves a sweet flavour and burning quality. Gypsum is excellent as a top-dressing and its use is particularly recommended to Indian cultivators. Crops manured with it suffer less from the effects of drought and require less irrigation.

TRANSPLANTING

When the seedlings are about three inches high in the nursery, that is, after

they have shown three or four leaves which takes place within six weeks from sowing time, they are fit for transplantation. The transplantation begins in the beginning of Aswin (the third week of September), and extends as late as the end of Kartik (middle of November). Early planting is preferable, especially for dry climates. The seedlings should be planted in the evening, three feet apart from one another.

AFTER-TREATMENT

A few days before the plants run to flower, their buds and lower leaves should be nipped off, and they should be so pruned that only eight leaves, and on no account more than ten, may be left to each plant from the top. Plants reserved for seeding should not be topped in this way but left to flower and seed. The plants always bring forth shoots by the side of the stalks of leaves pruned, and care should be taken to prune off the shoots every now and again until the leaves are mature. The longer these buds and shoots are kept the more injury is done to the leaves required to be gathered.

HARVESTING

When the leaves feel thick and gummy and begin to turn yellow with brown spots they are considered mature and they should be cut off. Tobacco should not be cut over-ripe. Harvesting of a plot should not be done at once; the mature plants are to be gathered first. The best time for harvesting is morning as soon as the dew is off plants. They should lie for some time in the sun, say for two hours, to make them sufficiently wilted, so that they can be handled without breaking. Care should be taken not to let them become too much sun-burnt. It is better to cut whole plants (close to the roots) than gather the leaves singly. Harvesting should be delayed for two or three days if there be heavy rainfall, which washes away the gummy matter of the leaves.

DRYING AND FERMENTING

Immediately after the plants are conveyed to the house, they should be hung up on strings beneath the roof of a well-ventilated house, six inches apart. Cowsheds are commonly used by the rayahs

this purpose, but this gives a bad taste to the tobacco. The plants should be hanging for more than two months, until they are quite dry. When very strong winds blow, the windows doors of the house should be closed. In dry weather, the floor of the shed should be occasionally sprinkled with water in order to keep the air of the room very moist.

After drying and fermenting the tobacco leaves are cured. This may be carried on in accordance with the uses of the

The general method of cultivation of cotton as given by Mallison is as follows:--

SOILS

The crop thrives best on fairly deep black soil, with a rainfall of 30 to 40 inches, and it is grown entirely as a dry crop. The most suitable soil is the so-called "black cotton soil" which may be found in some parts to a depth of five feet or more as in Ahmedabad, Broach and Surat; but cotton also succeeds on much shallower soils.

ROTATION

Cultivated plants are so under-estimated that they have been half so much confused by conflicting opinions regarding the names as the cottons. Practically all the names in current use were given to cultivated plants, and these have been subsequently, and in some cases erroneously, that they are now mostly unreliable. Instead of rejecting a nomenclature which is hopelessly useless, one botanist after another has given his peculiar names and re-assorted the published names. It is the duty of establishing species on the basis of forms and grouping the cultivated forms as near as may be possible under the names which have been absolutely neglected and the confusion of the genus become confounded. Useless controversy has engaged attention, such as whether there are fifty or more species, or whether there is only one in the whole genus, whether a single character of supreme value can be discovered, whether a classification of the forms can be based. The early authors divided the cottons into trees and bushes, or into annuals and biennials. It has now been decided beyond dispute that all species of cotton, when under suitable environment, are annuals if left alone, and may in time become bushes or even small trees. When cultivated they readily reversion to annuals, and when necessity arises they become biennials or otherwise adapt themselves. On dry stony soils they are annuals, on rich loamy soils are biennials, especially if restrained by cold winters or by a heavy periodical (monsoonic) rainfall or by infestations of insects.

COTTON

Generally the crop is grown alone, but where the rainfall is heavy and the soil retentive as in Broach, rice in the same or in separate rows is often subordinate to it. Coriander, sesamum, gram (*Cicer arietinum*) are sometimes sown to fill vacancies. The roji cotton of Kaira, etc. is, on sandy loam soils, always grown as a row crop with bajra (*Pennisetum typhoideum*) or pulses. The principal rotation crop with cotton is juar (*Sorghum vulgare*), but this may be modified according to district and season. Thus wheat is extensively grown as a dry rabi crop on the cotton soils of Ahmedabad, lang (*Lathyrus sativus*) and a mixed crop of tuver (*Cajanus indicus*) and sesamum as rabi crop in Broach, etc.

TILLAGE

Preparatory tilling begins usually in the hot weather by collecting and burning the stubble of the previous crop. Two ploughings and two more harrowings may be required before the seed is sown, but the amount of preparatory tillage necessary depends on the previous crop.

SEED

The seeds require special preparation for sowing, as they generally cling together, owing to the lint and fuzz which may still adhere to them. This is accomplished by mixing them with a thin plaster of cowdung, mud and water, and rubbing the plastered seed on the close network of an indigenous bedstead. The seeds can then be passed through the seed-bowls and tubes of an ordinary country seed-drill. If sown alone the seed is drilled in rows 22 to 26 inches apart. About 15 lbs.

per acre is the usual seed rate. Two harrows follow one drill to cover the seed and smooth the surface. If the seedlings are damaged before they produced true leaves, the crop should be resown, if the season has not too far advanced.

When the seedlings are about 4 inches high, the crop is ordinarily intercultured with the bullock hoe and hand-weeded. The weakings are then thinned out and the plants left about 18 inches to 2 feet apart, if in good condition, but if backward or stunted they are left closer together. The plough is finally passed between the rows in September or October.

CROP

Flowering begins in October-November, and may last till January if the rains are late and favourable. Picking usually commences in January and lasts till March or April. The crop is picked at short intervals, as the cultivators are afraid of their fields being robbed at night. The best time for picking is the morning, as the lint is then clean, owing to the dew on the foliage.

MODIFICATION ON ABOVE SYSTEM

In Surat the average rainfall is slightly heavier than in Broach, but the soil is not so deep nor so dense, and there is less risk of seedlings being destroyed by rain. The rotation crops are mostly kharif, whereas in Broach they are rabi. Juar is the principal rotation crop, always with a subordinate mixture of white tuber. Rice is never sown with cotton in Surat.

The principal variation in cultivation in the Karnatak is due to the monsoons - the south-west between June and October, and the north-east between October and December. If sowing were to take place in June, as in other districts, the Dharwar crop would ripen in the middle of the north-east monsoon and the cotton be damaged by rain. To prevent this, sowing usually takes place in the latter part of August, and may be even extended to September. The seedlings are not thinned out to the same extent as in Broach and Surat, but are left comparatively close together.

In Khandesh two forms of cotton are grown, the one on black and the other on light soil; they generally occupy the same field once in three years. The light-soil

crop yields best with heavy rainfall, the black-soil crop with moderate rainfall. The seed rate is 10 to 12 lbs. per acre as is sown, if possible, by June. Picking begins in October and is complete in December. In cotton-picking, care should be taken to avoid floss which is discoloured and damaged by boll-worm, as such obtain a poorer price and its presence lowers the average rate obtained.

In selecting seed for next crop, care should be taken to secure bolls from the largest, healthiest and most prolific fruiting plants. Seed should not be taken from plants on which any of the bolls are affected by boll-worm. As a further precaution against boll-worm, cotton seed should, before it is prepared for sowing, be steeped for five minutes in a 1 per cent solution of copper sulphate and then dried in the sun. Disastrous effects on the cotton crop may be produced by sudden atmospheric disturbances. The most frequent consequences are due to heavy rainfall, frequent changes of wind, cloudy weather and frost.

POTATO

The great importance of the potato as a human food in all the countries having temperate climates is more fully appreciated than even before. The role that this crop played in the Great War especially in Germany and Austria, may never be fully realized outside these two countries themselves. Naturally, crop of such great economic importance as the potato, and one having such wide adaptation to the soil and climatic conditions, involves many problems and many enemies in the shape of insect and fungus pests with which to contend.

In this article it is our aim to discuss the basic principles underlying the cultivation of potatoes.

ROTATION

Potato is usually cultivated in Bengal after jute, or maize, or Aus partly in tracts of country where the potato is the principal crop, it often forms the only crop of the year. In parts of Bihar, in the plains of Northern India, and in Khandesh two crops of potatoes are taken from the same land in one year. There is a common

tion in this country that potatoes do well on the same land year after year. The texture of the soil is no doubt render-fitter and fitter for the potato crops by the cultivation operations done for this crop, but insect and fungus pests predominate and prove the injuriousness of this system after a few years. It is best to sow sunn-hemp, between June and August and plough the crop in August or September. The green manuring adds considerably to the growth of potatoes. Lime and fresh ashes should be used if green manuring is done to hasten the decomposition of the manure and prevent insect-pests.

VARIETIES

There are several varieties of potatoes grown in different parts of India. The green variety with red skin gives a better yield than the Nainital variety, and the pulping of the Patnai potatoes would be an improvement. A Madras variety is so very prolific, but it does not keep so well as the Patnai or the Deshi.

SOIL

The most suitable soil for the cultivation of potato is the sandy loam of a fine texture but not clay loam. Such soil, if it contains a good deal of humus matter, which makes it retentive of moisture, is best suited for the crop. Shallow, sandy, stony soils and heavy clay soils, are not fitted for potatoes. Sandy soils improved by the admixture of pond or river silt answers very well.

PREPARATION OF THE SOIL

In the cultivation of potato deep ploughing and thorough pulverizing of the soil is essential. Two ploughings and two cross ploughings with an improved wheel, followed by one grubbing with a grubber and one cross-grubbing should be done as soon as the rainy season commences. The 3 series of operations being repeated at intervals of one week between the ploughings. Then should follow one or two harrowings for collecting weeds. After harrowing the land it should be raised to seed bed level by means of ladder. The land is next prepared for irrigation before sowing is done, as the making of irrigation channels after sowing uproots the plants. The field is first

divided from its head, or main channel for irrigation, to its bottom, into a number of long strips 6 ft. wide, separated by water-channels about a foot wide, leading from the main channel at the head of the field to the bottom. The strip of land 6 ft. wide should then be divided into ridges and furrows 18 inches from one another. The ridges should be made in such a manner that they are at right angles to the main irrigation channel.

HOEING

Along these ridges 6 ft. long and 18 inches wide, potatoes should be planted in double rows 6 inches apart during September and October, 6 inches from one another and 4 inches deep. This is a tedious operation, one man makes a straight channel 4 to 5 inches deep with a narrow spade along each furrow and between two adjacent ridges. Another man then puts in two rows of pickled potatoes 6 inches apart both ways, and covers up the channel as he goes on, following the man who is making the channel, while a third man goes on putting manure along the covered channels only. Instead of spreading the manure all over the field this will be found a more economical way of using the manure.

MANURING

As potatoes are benefitted by high manuring, good manure may be used. One of the following manures is recommended for use:

I.

Bone meal	6 mds.
Castor cake (powdered)	18 "

The mixture is sufficient for manuring 1 acre of land. It may be applied immediately after planting.

II.

Rotten cowdung	400 mds.
Ashes or lime	15 "
Castor cake	15 "

In this preparation rotten cowdung must be applied before planting to ensure better yield. The remaining two substances are mixed together and applied after planting.

IRRIGATION

Whether the plants all come out within a fortnight or not, the first watering

should take place within 10 days to a fortnight after planting, unless a good shower of rain makes this watering superfluous. The tardy sprouts will come up after the watering. If seed-potatoes are kept indoors under a heap of moist straw or over damp sand for a week or ten days before planting, the sprouting will be quicker and more even after planting. Instead of flooding the field or running the water along the channels in which the seed potatoes are imbedded, it is best to run the water along channels between the rows of potatoes, or to distribute the water from the channel by means of an irrigation spoon. This prevents caking of the soil. But if the water run, along the channels in which the potatoes are imbedded hoeing should be done within a week after the irrigation to allow the sprouts to come up without resistance. The first earthing up should take place when the plants are 6 to 9 inches high. Then should follow two waterings at the interval of a fortnight and then the second earthing. If the soil looks dry, irrigation should take place before and after the two earthings at shorter intervals, say, once in 10 days. Three to six irrigations are necessary, according to the nature of the locality and of the season.

LIFTING

When the leaves and haulms are dried up completely and the land becomes quite dry, the potatoes are ready for lifting. Usually it takes three months to get matured potatoes for harvesting. This lifting is best done with the Hunter hoe unless a potato-digging plough is employed. Perhaps a slightly larger proportion of tubers gets cut when the hoe is used than when spades are used. 100 maunds to 150 maunds per acre is a fair outturn, though as much as 300 maunds per acre are sometimes obtained.

PRESERVATION OF SEEDS

It is difficult to preserve the seed of the superior and large sized hill potatoes in the plains, and one of the chief obstacles to the spread of the cultivation of the Nainital potatoes has been the high price that has to be paid for the imported seed at the time of sowing. If each cultivator could store his own Nainital potato-seed there would be no occasion to grow the inferior Deshi varieties. The following plan as

given by N. G. Mukherjee in his "Handbook on Agriculture" may be tried.

In a dark but well ventilated erect shelves in which sand is to be spread and potatoes spread one deep on the shelves. Ten or twelve shelves may be arranged one above another on the wall. All rotten potatoes must be weeded out of the seed-godown examined constantly for this purpose. Small sized potatoes are better and those that come from the surface of the ground. Only the best places are suitable for preserving the seeds.

BRINJAL

Next to potato brinjal is the most highly prized vegetable. It is extensively grown throughout India and other countries for its fruit which when cooked and dressed in various ways, forms a palatable vegetable.

VARIETIES

There are numerous varieties differing chiefly in shape, size, and colour of the fruit. One variety has a scarlet fruit of the same size and shape as the fruit of a large red tomato; another has a purple egg shaped fruit, but these two are considered more ornamental than useful. The fruit of the latter is sometimes eaten. The varieties which are most esteemed as vegetables have dark or light purple fruit and are either quite round or egg-shaped in shape.

SOIL

High, well drained sandy garden soil not too rich in organic matter suits this crop best. In clayey soils the fruits become small though with an excess of organic, or nitrogenous matter present in the soil, gives rise to the development of leaves at the expense of the fruit. It is an experimental fact that the plots give better result than plots treated with saltpetre and cowdung. The crop is subject to diseases and attack of insects should not be grown in the same place every year, and the land should be well drained, as stagnant water gives rise to fungoid diseases. The free use of lime and ashes at the time of sowing and during the planting is also recommended and the best and protected cultivation before planting.

SELECTION OF SEED

The selection of good and matured seeds should be selected in order to get a good crop. The seeds should be secured from a nursery or from seeds stored from the previous crop. The latter method is best, of course. In the previous culture when the biggest first fruits are golden yellow in colour they are picked from the plants and cut right through. In this state they are kept in a basket for two days. The seeds are then selected, washed clean in water and dried in the sun and kept up for the next year.

SOWING

The preparation of soil is absolutely necessary before sowing the seeds. The soil is well pulverised with the kodali and well rotted manure mixed with lime and ashes applied. This should be done in January or February, while the sowing should be deferred till the end of March or still later, the usual time of sowing in Lower Bengal being early in April. Thorough watering of the soil should take place before sowing is done. After a shower of rain or watering of the seed-bed with a sprinkling, seed is sown evenly and thickly in a seed-bed, which should be kept in a cool and shady place. After sowing the hand is lightly rubbed over the seed and a covering is given. Every day except when there is rain, the seed-bed should have a light sprinkling of water. If the seed-bed is in shade well protected from the sun, no other protection will be required, otherwise the bed should be covered with palm or plantain leaves or grass thatch until the germination takes place in three or four days. Watering should be continued every day after germination also. If a heavy shower of rain takes place the seed-bed should be carefully drained of standing water. If insect pests appear, ashes and lime should be dusted on the plants.

The long bean (*solanum longum*) seed is sown in September and October, the seedlings are transplanted in October and November and they bear from February to March. From May to August the ordinary short bean plants may be made to bear fruits and that show signs of decay by Feb-

ruary or March are pruned, manured with mustard cake and ashes and watered. Fresh shoots will be thrown out, and fruits of a somewhat inferior quality will be borne.

In Northern India, however, three sowings of this crop are usually made in the course of a year. The first is made towards the end of October, broadcast in beds, and the beds, and the young plants, allowed to remain in the latter under a covering of grass thatch raised about 20 inches above the beds until the advent of mild spring weather. As soon as all danger from the occurrence of frosts, or about the middle of February, the young plants are transplanted.

The next sowing is made in beds as before during the spring months, or any time between the middle of February and end of March, and the plants, when large enough to handle, are transplanted as before.

The third sowing is made early in the rains and given the same treatment as the others. This sowing begins bearing towards the close of the rains.

TRANSPLANTING

The field where seedlings are transplanted should be also prepared very early in the season. This should be done with a kodali or with an improved plough and grubber. The grubber should be passed afterwards once a month until planting. By the middle of May the land should be levelled and got ready for planting. Drains are made all round the field and a few water channels running through the field. Then furrows are made 36 inches apart and the young seedlings planted along the middle of the furrow after a heavy shower of rain. If planting is done in April or May transplanting the seedling may be done on the level plot 36 inches apart instead of in furrows; and the water channels are made afterwards. Mustard-cake and ashes and lime should be applied finely powdered under each plant at the time of transplanting. Cowdung and castor-cake encourage the growth of vegetation at the expense of flowering and fruiting; and 6 maunds of mustard cake and 3 maunds of ashes and 1 maund of lime are a sufficient application for one acre. In a fortnight

or ten days the kodali should be passed between the rows of plants, thus levelling the field. Blanks should be filled up at this time. After another fortnight the kodali should be passed once more between the rows of plants covering the furrows into ridges. Irrigation may or may not be necessary according to the character of the season and the time of planting. If planting is done after a heavy shower of rains in June, irrigation will not be generally necessary till November; but if it is done in April or May, irrigation will be necessary at least once to save the crop from drought. From November to March irrigate once a month. The fruits will begin to bear in August; kuli begins to bear fruits from February to June; while the ordinary variety may be made to bear fruits from May to August. Thus brinjals are available throughout the year.

DISEASES OF THE PLANTS

Brinjal plants are liable to be attacked with the fungoid diseases, namely Dhashalaga and Tulshimara. These are due to the overlook of cultivators for not cutting off the tap-root at the time of transplanting and also to the roots getting cut at the time of earthing. These are fictitious causes. Root-cutting has something to do, no doubt, with the vigour of plants; and cutting of the roots when there is water-logging may indirectly cause spores of fungi to settle in the tissue of the plants. Water-logging helps the spread of the bacillus. Every plant affected with a fungoid disease must be uprooted and burnt. The seed should be pickled, and the same locality always avoided for growing this crop from year to year.

PALWAL OR PATAL

This is a climbing or trailing perennial with annual stems, and is extensively cultivated in the warmer parts of India. Although found in a wild state in the Northern Provinces, the cultivated form is by no means a common plant in these districts. Like others of its tribe, it is grown for its fruit, which, when in an immature state, is much esteemed as an ingredient in vegetable curries. The fruit is about 4 inches long, pointed at both ends and swollen in the middle, when young, pale green, and when ripe, changing to a deep orange colour.

The seeds are usually sown in a light well-drained soil in patches at 3 feet apart from May to the middle of July, and the stems allowed to trail over the ground without support. It is also trailed in trees, and grown in hedges where the stems can find support; but it is believed to fruit more profusely when grown on the ground. Like all rainy season crops it flourishes under the wet conditions whether then usually prevalent, but at the same time it dislikes stagnant moisture around the roots. When selecting a spot for cultivation, a high well-drained position should always be chosen.

When grown at low elevations and in hills, sow at the same time and give the after-treatment as described for the plain.

CAULIFLOWER

This popular vegetable is too well known to call for any description. It is the most esteemed of the varied forms which have sprung from *Brassica cauliflora*. There are numerous varieties named in seed lists, most of which readily acclimatise in India. They change character to a certain extent, but show little degeneration except when sown late in the season. In a warm forcing climate of this country it causes cauliflower to assume an earlier and quicker maturing habit than it possesses when newly received from Europe. In other words, it is transformed from a temperate to a semi-tropical plant, and should be treated as such. If accelerated seeds are sown in Northern India during the months of June, July and August, the plants produce most excellent heads, but if seed from the selfsame stock is sown later on, or in September and October, the plants shoot up into flower without forming heads, greatly to the annoyance and disappointment of the grower. If the seeds are sown during the same months, they have been named for sowing accelerated stock, the seeds often fail to vegetate, and when they do come up, the plants are very apt to die off owing to the heat and excessive moisture then prevalent. In order to have a long succession, it is a good plan to make use of both classes of seed, i.e., acclimatised for early or accelerated sowing, and imported for late or autumn sowing.

As the young plants are rather more delicate than is the case with other members of the Brassica family, the seedlings require more careful preparation, and seedlings more after-attention than is asked by other members of that tribe.

The beds should be prepared before the rains begin in an open, sunny situation, and should be about 5 feet by 5 feet for every ounce of seed sown. For all early sowings they should be raised fully a foot above the surrounding surface in order to insure good drainage, but for sowings made after the rains are over, they may be prepared on the level ground. The soil should be friable and fairly rich, but not highly manured. We find old potting material and some well decayed leaf-mould, mixed in a few inches deep over the surface of the beds, to be the best manure which can be given. After completing these arrangements the seed should be sown broadcast, and covered over with $\frac{1}{2}$ inch of light, finely-sifted soil. If the weather is dry at the time, water immediately after sowing with a fine-rosed watering pot, but if the rains are then in progress withhold water except during the occurrence of a long dry break. The seeds should never be sown when the soil is in a humid condition. It is, of course, most impossible to prepare a dry seed-bed during the rains, but if the beds are raised before the rains begin, as already recommended, one day of bright subshine will often dry the soil just to the condition it should be in for the reception of seed.

Shade should be given to all sowings for a few hours during the hottest part of the day, and withdrawn when the seedlings become a week old. Early sowings may, however, be protected with advantage with some covering material during the occurrence of a severe rain, but the covering should not be left on the plants an hour longer than is absolutely necessary, or they will grow very leggy, and in a generally unfit condition for transference to the open ground.

For sowings, or those made in June or July, are all the better for being once transplanted before being finally planted to their permanent quarters in the ground. The young plants of these sowings should therefore be carefully taken up from the

seed-bed, and pricked out in new beds, made up as before, in lines 3 inches apart and 2 inches from plant to plant. If this plan is followed, the plants will be found to be much sturdier and hardier when the season for planting arrives, than if they had allowed to grow on in the seed-beds.

The ground for the ultimate reception of the plants should be prepared in the same manner as recommended for cabbage, and plants put out in row 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet apart and 2 feet from plant to plant. These distances will answer for all varieties excepting Veitch's Autumn Giant. This being a larger growing variety than any of the others, it requires the rows placed at 3 feet apart and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet from plant to plant. All after-cultivation is exactly the same as has been recommended for cabbage.

Cauliflower is subject to the attacks of several insect enemies. When in the seed-bed, a small dark green caterpillar is sometimes very destructive to the young plants. When it is present, the leaves should be dusted over every second or third day with the ash of cowdung or gently sprayed with a weak solution of phenyle. If the latter is used, a teaspoonful of the fluid should be allowed to every gallon of water. After the plants have been put out in the ground, and up to the time that the heads are ready for cutting, few insects seem to trouble them, but if a few are grown on for seeding purposes, these often get attacked just before or soon after coming into flower by Aphis or green fly. Frequent syringings with a solution of phenyle, double the strength of that recommended for the plants when young, will soon exterminate this pest. After the plants have formed their seed pods they are sometimes troubled with a small greyish bug. This insect has a habit of dropping to the ground when disturbed; therefore, the best plan to get rid of it is to spread a cloth below the plants and gently shake them, then gather up and crush the insects that have fallen.

The treatment required at hill stations is similar as recommended for the plains. Imported seed only should, however, be used, as acclimatised stock seldom gives good results in the hills. The seeds should be sown in spring or in autumn in a warm sunny situation. When the weather is

severe, autumn sowings should be protected with matting or dry grass, but protection must not be overdone, or the plants will be weak and leggy when the season for planting arrives. In the lower elevations early autumn only should be made.

CABBAGE

Cabbage is one of the most popular of vegetables. There are innumerable varieties of four classes, Dwarf Early Whites, Dwarf Savoy, Large Late Drumheads and Red Pickling Cabbage.

The seeds should be sown broadcast in beds and covered over with about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch of fine soil, from the middle of August to the end of October. The beds should be made in an open situation on moderately rich soil, and should possess a surface area of 25 square feet for every ounce of seed sown. If the soil is moist at sowing time, no water need be given until the plants appear, but if it is dry, water should be at once given from a fine roset watering pot, and the supply repeated whenever necessary. Shade should be afforded for a few hours during the hottest part of the day immediately after sowing, and for a few days after the young plants appear, but care should be taken not to overshadow, or the plants will be drawn up into a weak, leggy, and generally unfit condition for transference to their permanent quarters in the open ground.

As early sowings are apt to be destroyed by heat and excessive moisture, only small chance sowings should be made in August and during the early part of September. The main sowings may be made after the middle of the last named month or during October. When the young plants are 4 or 5 inches high they should be planted out in ground prepared as follows :—

Overspread the surface to a depth of 4 or 5 inches with decomposed manure of the farm-yard class a month or six weeks before planting is required to be done, and dig over to a depth of 15 or 18 inches, thoroughly incorporating the manure with the soil during the operation. After the surface has been pulverised and levelled, lay the ground out in drills, 4 inches wide, 3 inches deep, and 18 inches apart, and insert the plants down one side of the drills at 18 inches as under. These distances are

sufficient for all classes of cabbage excepting the large growing Drum. For the latter, allow 3 feet from drill, and 2 feet from plant to plant. Water immediately after planting, and repeat the supply about once a week if the weather is dry. Weed when the plants appear, and occasionally stir the soil between the rows with a fork. When the plants are rather more than half grown, earth should be drawn from the spaces between the rows up to the base of the stems, and this operation has been accomplished when the plants should appear as if planted in a bed from 6 to 8 inches high. All the attention consists in keeping down the weeds and flooding the furrows between the ridges once a week as before if the weather is dry.

Small heads of the Drumhead cabbage may be had in season in the hills in Northern India up to the end of the year. In order to secure this result, the seeds should be sown about the beginning of December, and the young plants should be transplanted in January at the distances apart for the Dwarf Early Whites.

The cabbage is not so liable to attacks of insects in this country as in Europe, but during some seasons a species of caterpillar appears. When it does, the only successful remedy for its destruction is hand picking until exterminated.

The mode of cultivation required in the hills is the same as detailed for the lowlands. For gardens situated below 5,000 feet altitude autumn sowings are recommended. Crops from spring sown seeds are probably destroyed by numerous insects and caterpillars.

When it is desired to have a continuous supply to use during the early summer, the seeds should be sown in the hills in autumn, and the young plants removed from these to the open ground in the lowlands. Spring sowings will not produce crops to use until late in summer, or during the early winter months. In order to have a continuous supply, sowings should be made at both seasons.

PEAS

There is no vegetable of which the seedman's list contains so many varieties as of the Pea or Mutter (*Pisum sativum*). Every year new varieties are added.

en several however, scarcely any
 ne exists but in name, and a selec-
 f three, or at the most four, will be
 at may by any possibility be needed
 Indian garden. Seed dealers are
 y able to advise regarding useful
 tes.

SOIL

ough peas are grown on all wet
 ncer tanks and wells, they seem
 the best on rich light clayey loams
 ed mostly from wells. The plant
 withstand water-logging in the

SEASON

he peas do not stand in long
 out rain they are usually planted
 the end of the rainy season and
 coming of winter. In districts of
 inches rainfall or under, there is
 sation to sowing them at the beginn-
 the rains.

PREPARATION OF THE SOIL

he land is usually ploughed twice
 the mould-board or country ploughs.
 mould-board ploughs are used in great
 us in these parts. Ploughings are
 after good rains or by irrigating
 wells or tanks. If the land is very
 even after the harvest of paddy, it
 ed roughly at least on blocks of
 one or one-eighth of an acre. The
 are opened with the Kodali
 Three or four such blocks
 an individual generally plants
 with peas, as otherwise it will
 for him to properly attend to
 irrigating the crop. Some-
 furrows are opened with a
 plough. The furrows are made
 deep and half foot wide into
 lengths of 10 to 15 feet at the
 which runs the water channel. A
 of four to six feet is allowed
 about in between them for
 the plants, hoeing and picking of
 other operations. The growth of
 should be better and more vigorous
 which are prepared some time,
 month, before sowing than in lands
 immediately before sowing.

PRECAUTION IN SOWING

Cool winds seem to favour the natural
 growth of the plant besides warding off
 the terrible diseases mildew—which
 attacks peas. With the object of aiding
 good circulation of the cool breeze usually
 coming from either west or east, peas are
 always sown in rows running east to west.

MANURING

A mixture of cattle manures and fresh
 earth at the rate of 5 to 10 cart-loads per
 acre respectively is then worked into the
 furrows. The application of fresh earth
 is sometimes dropped in which case the
 dose of cattle manure is increased by four
 or five carts, if not doubled. According to
 Firminger's Manual of Gardening manur-
 ing should be done by digging the soil to
 a depth of one foot and enriching with
 manure at the rate of 10 lbs. farmyard
 manure and four ounces bone meal per
 square yard.

CULTIVATION

Seeds are dibbled by hand 2" to 3"
 deep and $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ " apart in the furrow at
 the rate of twenty-five to thirty seers
 (Mysore) per acre, preferably in dry soil.
 This works out at eighteen to thirty seeds
 for the length of a foot. Wrinkled seeds
 or immature greenish coloured ones are re-
 jected and only whitish coloured good seeds
 are selected for sowing. Seed meant for
 sowing purposes are generally dried well
 previous to sowing and sprinkled with lime
 dust.

Various insects, birds and other
 animals are found on the seeds and seed-
 lings. To protect the seed it is recommend-
 ed to shake it up in a vessel with sweet oil
 and then transfer the oily seeds to a vessel
 containing a little red lead where they are
 shaken to make the poisonous powder
 adhere to them. A boy should be set on
 guard over the pea plot till the plants are
 well above ground, say six inches tall. If
 there is no rain, water should be given
 once in eight days till flowering once in
 four days when the pods are forming and
 swelling, and gradually reduced thereafter.

AFTER-CULTIVATION

Germination takes place in 5 days
 after dibbling. After the plants have come,

up they are hand watered for three to four weeks as follows :—

Once daily during the first week : 7 to 8 waterings.

Once in two days during the second week : 3 to 4 waterings.

Once in three days during the third and fourth weeks : 5 to 6 waterings.

When the plants are about 9 to 10 inches high, they are staked, usually with lantana stems which are got from the waste lands or hedges. Nearly five to six cart-loads of lantana stems would be required to provide stakes for an acre of peas. These stakes are not as durable as bamboo branches used in some rare instances.

While staking, the crop is earthed up and the irrigation channels are deepened. Then follows irrigation of the crop from a well or a tank whichever may be the source of water supply. At the beginning only light irrigations are given and if the rains fall in the meantime no irrigation is given at all for fear of water-logging. Later on, copious watering is given at each irrigation and the number of irrigations also, in case no rains are received, is increased. Sometimes two irrigations are given daily when the picking of pods has begun. Some thirty to thirty-five irrigations are found necessary for a summer crop.

HARVESTING

The plants flower in about 32 days and the first set pods are ready for picking in about 55 days after planting. Then there are about eight to ten more pickings at an interval of four to five days between one picking and the other. Usually the latter pickings are bigger than the first one and the last picking is equal to the first picking. The pods are cut off with scissors, usually hand-picked, by a batch of two coolies per row, going simultaneously on both sides of it.

For seed purposes, pods enough to give them the required quantity of seeds are not picked, allowed to ripen and dry on the plants. These dry pods are not picked separately but the entire plant is pulled off the ground. Both the plants and pods are further dried in the yard and thrashed with a stick when the seeds separated easily from the pods and are

gathered, cleaned by winnowing and stored after drying thoroughly for a couple of days.

YIELD

1,500 to 2,500 lbs. of green pods and 70 to 100 lbs. of dry seeds are the average outturn per acre. As in the case of potato, one can never be sure of a good pea crop.

TOMATO

Tomato plant or *lycopersicon esculentum* is a succulent annual, said to be native of South America and is now cultivated for its fruit which, when ripe, is much esteemed in salads, for making sauces and for flavouring soups, etc.

CULTIVATION

In order to cultivate tomatoes, selected seeds are scattered over the bed made up in the open situation from the middle of July to the end of October. For every bigha of land $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 lbs. of seeds are generally required. After scattering the seeds on the seed-bed, a light cover of leaf-mould should be put over it as protection from rain and too much light.

The covering mats are to be removed every evening if no rainfall is expected and at night and the cover put on again in the morning or 9 A. M. otherwise the germinated seeds or even the seedlings will all be killed. Some sunlight is needed for seedling growth else they will grow up into sickly plants. During this short interval water should be gently sprinkled on the seedlings as soon as germination is required, say, once in two or three days if the soil looks dry. When the plants grow a few inches high, they should be planted in the open ground in a well-prepared good soil well soaked with water and moderately manured. In places where frosts seldom or never occur, the plants may be planted in an open exposure in rows 3 feet apart and 1 foot between the plants, but in Northern India where frosts are of annual occurrence, they should be planted in a sheltered place and closer together. A good method of planting for cold places, is to place the plants out in sets of 3 rows, leaving 3 feet between each row, 15 inches between each plant, and a space of 3 or 4 feet

ween each set of rows as a pathway, when frost is prevalent, or when the days are exceptionally cold, cover over by evening with mats or grass tatties if the weather becomes mild.

In cultivating tomato dung and urine of horses and sheep can be used as manure. American scientists have already specified that tomato requires for its soil some potash manures; for this one each bigha of land about half a pound of superphosphate of lime and 25 pounds of nitrate of potash should be added to the soil just before the land may be prepared for cultivation. Ashes of dried water hyacinth and even decomposed fish can be used as manure.

The tomato plant is a half creeper. It is not erect by itself so it is better supported by a piece of bamboo stick vertically at the ground; without a support of stick the plant cannot grow vigorously and sunlight is absolutely needed for growth but instead the branches shoots upwards and there and partially lie on the ground producing fruits of small size. Supporting each plant with a bamboo stick and it is hung a couple of feet above the ground between two posts along each row and the plants are loosely tied to the sticks by means of jute ropes or by means of jute fibres.

In order to have a successful cultivation the tops of the branches of tomato plants are to be cut off. If this is not done the branches instead of growing upwards, grow towards the ground and the bush whereby the fruits of small size will be produced and at the same time it will be very difficult to gather them. All further attention is confined to watering when needed, and water should be given in 10 days when the weather is hot. Superfluous growths must be cut off to allow a free circulation of air and to prevent damping during wet weather.

YIELD

Tomatoes grown from imported seeds of the variety, yield 40 to 50 maunds per bigha. But if sufficient manure is added to the soil the yield would increase to 60 to 70 maunds. Selling price of tomatoes in this country generally varies from 4 to 8 annas per seer. Taking on an

average the price of tomato as 2 annas per seer the value realised by selling 40 maunds is Rs. 200/-. Deducting Rs. 50/- towards the cost of supervision, water and manure etc., the net profit would be Rs. 150/- per bigha.

If two sowings are made, one in July and one in September or October, fruit may be had in season from October to July, provided of course the protection has been attended to during the colder months in cold countries.

At hill stations, sowings may be made during the spring months, and the plants when large enough to handle, planted out in well drained ground at the distances apart given for warm districts in the plains. The spot chosen for growth should be sheltered from winds but not shaded from the sun.

CHILLIES

Cultivation of chillies is carried on largely in the Southern Maratha Country, Khandesh and parts of Gujarat; but the crop is grown in the kharif season. In the Konkan, specially in the coastal parts of the Thana District, this crop is grown also in the rabi season under irrigation, and its produce is sold as green capsules. The reason why this crop does not thrive in the fair season in the Deccan or Gujarat, is that, there is then, excessive cold or heat which the crop cannot stand. The Konkan tract where both cold and heat are moderate is, therefore, specially suited for the cultivation of this crop in the fair season; besides when there is a great demand for green capsules, in Bombay and Surat, they are required to be imported from the Madras Presidency. The prevailing rates of green chillies are also high and hence there is a scope for the extension of chillies cultivation in the Konkan in the rabi season.

The following extract from Leaflet issued by the Department of Agriculture, Bombay would be of much help to the cultivators of the article.

VARIETY

The common variety grown is locally called "Shivati" or "Thakari." The capsules of this variety are short, varying from $\frac{1}{2}$ " to $1\frac{1}{2}$ " in length, and have a conical

shape. In taste they are delicious and pungent.

SOIL

This crop is either grown on malvarkas lands or rice fields in the rabi season, the soil of which varies from loam to stiff clay. It is irrigated with well water and the area under this crop is over 600 acres in the Thana District.

TILLAGE

After the close of the monsoon the field or the plot where this crop is to be grown, should be watered and when the land becomes accessible it should be ploughed, preferably with a medium size iron plough. After removing the stubbles, the clods should be crushed and the plot should be ploughed again. The local practice is then to lay out the area into small beds with manual labour; but as plating in these beds does not allow the use of interculturing implements, considerable labour is required for weeding, earthing up, etc., and watering is also required to be given at short intervals. So, instead of these beds, the area should be laid out into ridges and furrows, 3 feet apart with an iron-ridger or a cultivator or, in the absence of any of these, with the Gujarati hoe with a wooden plank attached between the blade and the head piece.

RAISING SEEDLINGS

The area selected for these should be high lying preferably used in the last fair season for growing rice seedlings. After the removal of the rice seedling, the land should be kept fallow in the rainy season till September. In this month it should be ploughed, weeded and prepared, for putting a seed of chillies. It should then be laid out into beds each 8' by 4'. Sixteen such beds produce seedlings sufficient for planting one acre of chillies. Half pound of seed is required for sowing these beds, there being a residual effect upon the soil by burning, no manuring is necessary except a light application of powdered cake or fish. If the area is not burnt previously, 1 cake at 1½ pounds per bed should be applied. Immediately after sowing seed, it should be lightly covered with finer earth and watered and the beds covered over with the leaves of palms, coconuts, straw, grass, etc. Next watering should be done

on the third day, and should be continued at an interval of 3 to 5 days, depending upon the nature of the soil. The covering grass or leaves, etc., should be removed after the seed has germinated.

TRANSPLANTING

In about 5 weeks the seedlings are ready for transplanting, being 5' to 6" height. It is always desirable to water the beds on the day previous to planting. Transplanting should be 3 feet apart in both directions and the distance should be in square form. The following method should be adopted.

Along the side of each parallel bed, a line should be marked with a line and on these lines marked at 3 feet apart should be made by passing a rope held by 2 men standing on the boundary and moving along for this purpose. At the points small holes should be made with a pointed stick and a handful of rotten farmyard manure should be added to each. The suitable time for planting is either evening or morning. The local practice is to take 4 to 5 seedlings and plant them together; but by experience it is proved that it is not necessary to have many planted together. Only two seedlings in one bunch are recommended. The whole area should be watered immediately after planting, and this watering should be repeated on the third day. Subsequent watering should be done at an interval of 8-12 days in winter and 4 to 8 days in summer, depending upon the character of the soil.

ROTATION OR MIXTURE OF CROPS

There is no special practice of rotation in the Konkan as in the up-ghat tracts. In the rainy season rice is grown with other crops. In the fair season such crops like chillies, brinjals, onions, etc., are grown, selection depending upon the fancy of the cultivator. It would be advisable to have some rotation in alternate years instead of chillies and brinjals year after year. This would minimize the damage caused by pest and diseases as well as introduce the benefits of rotation.

AFTER-TREATMENT OF THE CROP

The crop should be intercultured four to five times. This also removes the weeds economically.

MANURING

In manuring castor cake should be used alone, or a mixture of castor cake, sulphate of ammonia and bone-superphosphate as given below :—

Name of Manure.	Quantity per acre.	Time of Application
Castor cake (alone)		
Castor cake	900 lbs.	1st About three weeks after planting.
Castor cake	1,800 „	2nd Two months after first application.
Mixture of castor cake and sulphate of ammonia and bone-superphosphate.		
Castor cake	450 „	1st About three weeks after plating.
Sulphate of ammonia	90 „	
Bone-superphosphate	90 „	
Castor cake	900 „	2nd Two months after first application.
Sulphate of ammonia	180 „	
Bone-superphosphate	180 „	

Both castor cake alone and the mixture consisting of castor cake, sulphate of ammonia and bone-superphosphate as given above are found to be equally efficacious and the selection should be made in accordance to prices. Besides, when liquid manure is available, it should be applied at the rate of 20 cart loads per acre while preparing the land. When this is not the case there is no necessity for the first application of the cake manure.

After each manuring the crop should be worked up with an iron cultivator of a similar type with the interspace closed with soil.

HARVESTING

The first picking is obtained three months after sowing and the subsequent one at an interval of 3 to 4 weeks. The interval between successive pickings should not be allowed to exceed this period.

DISEASES AND PESTS

The common pest noticed is the malformation of the plant and the curling of the leaves and is locally called "Murda." It is specially noticed in winter and is said to be more virulent if there be excessive watering. Withholding of water during dry days and exposing the soil by after-ploughing for aerating has some

beneficial effect. Besides this pest, there is a fungoid disease of the wilt type which kills the plant. This disease is carried in the soil; hence in order to control this disease it is advisable to adopt a suitable rotation.

OUTTURN

The crop is invariably sold as green capsules and the outturn per acre is estimated at 11,200 lbs. valued at Rs. 700/-, at 16 lbs. per rupee.

GINGER

Although ginger is cultivated in all the tropical parts of the world still it is doubtless a native of Southern Asia, where it has been cultivated and exported from the very beginning of civilisation. In India it is grown throughout the warmer parts but chiefly in the plains.

This plant belongs to a family of aromatic herbs with creeping root stock or rhizomes. Turmeric and cardamom also belong to the same family. The ginger plant is a perennial and can grow well in the shade; hence the adjoining land under large trees such as mangoes, etc. could be utilised with great advantage thus keeping out the insect-pests which would otherwise do much harm to the fruit plants.

SOIL AND ITS PREPARATION

Stiff clayey soil are not suitable for any root crops, but any soil which is not stony, gravity or gravelly will do for growing these crops. It also likes a deep, rich, free working soil, which is naturally well drained. It grows to great perfection on the deep, alluvial, sandy places like the oam of Baroda and Kaira.

When the plot selected for cultivation of ginger for the first time, it is desirable to plough up the land just after the rainy season is over because at that time the land is in a fit state for ploughing. After ploughing the laddering is done so as to break up the lumps, thus making out most preparation during the cold weather for these crops. In the following April after the first shower of rain another ploughing and laddering will render the land fit for planting the bulbs of ginger.

MANURING

Manuring is scarcely done for this plantation but a maund of ashes and 2 or 3 maunds of oil-cake per acre would benefit the crop and the trees under which it is grown. If manuring is neglected, the trees under whose shade these are grown would suffer injury due to repeated cultivation. The manuring should be done twice, just after the bulbs are planted and before the roots are earthed.

PLANTING

After preparing the soil, the ginger sets which consists of pieces of the rhizome bearing two or three buds are planted with the greatest regularity in rows at a depth of about 2 inches below the surface and a span of 9 inches apart in each direction. With a narrow implement a number of quidistant little pits are carefully produced. The sets are pressed down into these pits, covered with soil and the whole surface smoothed with the land.

About two maunds of the ginger seed are required for planting an acre. When the plants have come up and before the advent of rainy season earthing should be done along the natural inclination of the ground to make passages for the heavy downpour from the neighbourhood of the land.

WEEDING

Weeding is thoroughly done by hand. The crop may have to be gone over from three to six times according to the condition of the field. The weeds should be lifted up dexterously in each operation so as not to descend below the surface and come up again with an extensive system of rhizome when it is impossible to eradicate and thus damage the crop to a great extent.

IRRIGATION

The plant must be watered every six days until the rains. If thereafter there is a break in the rainfall of more than ten days' duration, irrigation must be resorted to. When the rains cease, irrigation is required every sixth day until the crop is ripe. The crop is ready for harvesting by the end of November or beginning of December, but no certain rule can be given.

HARVESTING

When the leaves have completely withered, the root is dug out by hand with a small hand pick and is sold to a dealer who either sells it as ginger or dries it into sunth or dried ginger in which form it is used for condiments and medicines.

STORING

The central room of any ordinary well built-house is usually cool and therefore the most suitable apartment for the storage of ginger. A cool moist atmosphere and ventilation are required. The ginger should be sorted before it is stored and any decayed portions removed. The apartment is prepared by digging up the floor 10" to 12" deep and by soaking the upturned earth with water. The water is absorbed in eight or ten days and the floor becomes dry enough. The sorted ginger is then kept up in a heap to a height of 4 to 5 feet. The heap when finished is covered with dry ginger leaves which are often sprinkled with water. The heaps are examined once in a week and if found that the middle portion is warmer than the rest the whole is removed from the room and any rotten pieces separated. In three or four days the ginger is again heaped up. If the heap remains cool during the storage, it would be concluded that the substance, is all right.

PREPARING DRIED GINGER

There are two known methods of drying ginger: (1) ordinary curing, (2) short-time curing. The former is adopted in all ginger-growing countries, the latter is practised only in certain districts in India.

ORDINARY CURING

Ordinary curing is carried out with well-developed, properly matured rhizomes. The ginger is sun-dried and the adhering soil is removed as much as possible. The preparation in preparing dried ginger is to soak the partially cleaned rhizomes in lime water. This with rubbing cleans the ginger and also softens them. The lime facilitates the removal of the outer skin. It is scraped off with a shell or clean pieces of earthenware. The good ginger is now washed and exposed to the sun for four days to the sun. The ginger is thus bleached and dried. It is rubbed by hand. The operation is repeated, so that the shoots are not broken. The ginger is again bleached in lime water followed by rubbing as indicated above. After this the ginger is steeped in water for about two or three hours and sent to the sun to dry. When dry it is placed on a coarse cloth, which removes the remaining outer skin not removed by the above operations.

MODIFICATIONS

Numerous modifications of this process have been adopted at various places. In certain parts of India the ginger is soaked in water for as long as two days. In some the roots are placed in water for a day. If they are uprooted for, should they be dried with the soil and roots broken to it, the product will not be of good quality.

In Gujarat the curing is carried out either by rubbing with a piece of earthenware or by rubbing the rhizomes on a coir mat instead. In Jamaica ginger peeling is considered an art. The expert peels the fingers of the hand and the stem and the other peels the other portions. In some places knives are used in peeling. In certain parts of S. India no peeling is done, but after being well soaked the ginger is rubbed under foot in the washing tanks.

This considerably lowers the cost of production.

The peeled product should be immediately put into a tank of clean water and thoroughly washed with frequent changes of water. This has been found very necessary if a light-coloured dry product is to be obtained. On exposure to air the peeled rhizomes darken considerably in colour and this stain persists. Where ginger is being cured, a good source of water supply should therefore be near at hand.

In order to obtain a white product peeled ginger, after washing, is soaked for some hours in lime water and then allowed to dry. The lime may then be washed off, if required. Liming improves the keeping quality of the ginger.

Drying is carried out in Jamaica on cement barbecues, and in certain places in India, on mats and gunny bags on the ground. The latter practice should be avoided if the ground is wet or damp. In certain districts in India after the ginger is well dried, it is carefully rubbed by hand on a coarse gunny bag and then allowed to dry again. This is said to improve the white colour of the dry product.

SULPHUR CURING

In sulphur curing, the green ginger was treated as in the ordinary method but after peeling it was placed in a tank of lime of the consistency of whitewash for a period of about two hours, during which time it was stirred once or twice. The ginger was then put into wicker or coil-bottomed baskets and placed on bamboo racks or shelves in a closed chamber and sulphured for 4 hours. A mud-wall room 6 ft. by 6 ft. was used for this work. It had a door at one end and a hearth opening from the outside at the other. The hearth consists of an iron pan or tray supported on a semi-circular wall about 1 ft. 6 ins. high. Sulphur was placed on the tray which was then heated from below. The quantity of sulphur used in the first instance was 7 lbs. per 1500 lb. of green ginger. The next day the ginger was placed in the sun to dry and in the evening the liming and sulphuring process repeated. 8 lbs. of sulphur were used this time and the period of sulphuring was increased.

o 12 hrs. The process was repeated a third time, the quantity of sulphur having been increased to 9 lb. and the period of exposure shortened to six hours. The product was then left to dry on the barécue and when well dried, the lime was washed off and the rhizomes put to dry again thoroughly.

The dry ginger so obtained is a comparatively plump, almost white-coloured and with a good fracture. It is much less susceptible to mould and insect attack than ordinary dried ginger. The disadvantage of the method, apart from the small extra cost and the trouble necessary, is that the product so cured is not saleable in all countries owing to the sulphur dioxide it contains.

It is recommended that only sound, fully-developed rhizomes should be used or drying. While the first year rhizomes are best for drying, second year rhizomes can also be used advantageously.

The great advantage of curing is that when there is no market for raw ginger owing to an over-supply, it would be a means of preserving the crop for at least a period of a year.

RADISH

This is an annual, a native of China, and is cultivated for its fleshy roots, which are generally eaten raw when in a young condition. There are two principal varieties, the long-rooted, and the globular or urnip-rooted, and numerous sub-varieties of both.

An acclimatised, long white-rooted variety is extensively grown in Northern India by the market gardeners, but it is not held in favour by the European, owing to its mildness and general want of flavour. It is usually sown in the rains, sometimes very early, as it is often met with in the bazars by the middle of July. A second kind also exists with roots similar to the one above described, but it is not grown for the root, although the latter can also be used, but for its long seed pods, which, when young and tender, are eaten both raw and cooked in vegetable curries. It is known to the European under the name of rattailed radish (*Raphanus caudatus*) and by the local

inhabitant as seengra, probably so named from the word seeng or horn, owing to the horn-like appearance of the pods.

All the imported varieties readily acclimatise in Northern India, and show no degeneration even when grown over a long series of years from the same strain, provided seed is always gathered from sound wellshaped roots, and then no plants of the common longrooted white kinds are allowed to flower near them. When it is desired to save seed, the most satisfactory are the best developed roots of October sowing should be taken up when about the size of a tennis ball in the case of the globular kinds, and when rather thicker than the thumb in the case of the long-rooted sort, and transplanted in rich soil at 3 feet apart each way. Before planting them, however, the leafy tops should be cut off, and also a portion of the fleshy root from the lower or root end. When ready for planting, the roots should only possess the growing crown, and about two-thirds of the fleshy part below, and, when being planted should be inserted sufficiently deep in the ground to allow of about 2 inches of soil to cover the crowns. Shortly after planting, new leaves will spring out, and numerous root fibres will be produced from the sides of the original fleshy root to secure nourishment for the tall branching leafy growing shoot that will eventually follow.

The radish requires a rich well-manured soil and plenty of water from the time of sowing until large enough to be used. As the roots only remain in a fit condition for the table for a short time, sowings should be made at intervals of ten days or a fortnight when a constant supply is desired. The seeds, whether imported or acclimatised, may be sown at any time between the middle of August and the end of January, but when it is desired to have the common long-rooted country variety, the beginning may be made as soon as the rains have fairly commenced. Sowing may be made thinly broadcast in beds, or in rows in lines at 6 inches apart, and in the latter case thinning out to 3 or 4 inches apart. Owing to the short time the roots remain in the crisp tender condition they should be in when seen upon the table, little after-cultivation is needed. A single weeding will usually suffice for each sowing.

At hill stations, sowing may be made in March until the end of August, but when the rains are in progress, some protection should be given during the occurrence of heavy showers.

ONIONS

There are very few vegetables cultivated in the dry parts of India with more success than this wholesome onion. It has good fortune to be generally appreciated in almost every household. It gives the flavour and digestibility of important articles of food that would otherwise be lacking, while it adds a zest that contributes alike to pleasure and health. Although there are few difficulties to be encountered in cultivation of this esculent, there is a marked difference between a well-grown onion and one under poor management.

The variety most generally grown gives the common pale-red onion of India. It is mostly depressed globular in shape, but evidently little care has been taken to secure uniformity. In colour it is red outside and creamy-white, with red streaks inside. The skin is membranous and fragile and the flesh very firm. The pungency is mild, and the bulbs keep well.

White skinned onions, which differ from the pale-red sort, are grown in some parts of India especially in the neighbourhood of Dhulia and Banaras.

TREATMENT OF SOIL

The onion can be grown on any kind of soil, but poor land must be assisted by manuring. For handsome bulbs to be raised, a deep rich loam of a medium light texture is required, although an adhesive loam, or even a clay, is improved for the purpose; while sandy soil excellent results may be obtained by good management. In any case the soil must be well prepared by digging, breaking the lumps, and laying the lumps to be disintegrated by the sun, and if needful its texture should be improved, as far as possible, at the time of sowing. A coat of clay may be spread over the surface of sand, to be thoroughly intermixed with it; on the other hand, if the staple is clay, the addition of sand will be advantageous. All such measures yield an adequate result if prudently carried out, because it

is possible to grow onions from year to year on the same ground. The plant is not fastidious, and it is easy work almost anywhere to grow useful onions. The first step in preparing the soil is to make it loose and fine throughout, and as far as possible to do this some time before the seed is sown.

MANURING

As almost any soil will suit the onion, so also will suit almost any kind of manure, provided that it be not rank or offensive. This strongly flavoured plant likes good but sweet living, and it is sheer folly to load the ground for it with coarse and stimulating manures. Yet it is often done, and the result is a stiffnecked generation of bulbs that refuse to ripen, or there may be complete failure of the crop through disease or plethora. But any fertiliser that is at hand, even the sweepings of poultry yards or pigeon lofts, may be turned to account by the simple process of first making it into a compost with fresh soil, and then digging it in some time in advance of the season for sowing, and in reasonable but not excessive quantity. All such aids to plant growth as guano, charcoal, and well rotted farmyard manure, may be used advantageously for the onion crop; but there are two materials of especial value namely, that are universally employed by large growers, both to help the growth and prevent maggot and chanker. These are the lime and soot. These are sown together when the ground is finally prepared for the seed, and in quantity only sufficient to colour the ground. They exercise a magical influence, and those who make money by growing onions take care to employ them as a necessary part of their business routine.

SOWING THE SEED

Having been well dug and manured in good time, the top spit only should be dug over when it is finally made ready for the seed. The work must be done with care, and the beds should be marked off in breadths of four feet, with one-foot alleys between. Break all lumps with the spade, and work the surface to a regular and finely crumbled texture. Light soil should be trodden over to consolidate it, and then the surface may be carefully touched with the rake to prepare it for the seed.

tember and October are not usual months for sowing the seeds, but in several cases seeds are sometimes put even in November. The seed bed are germinated a few days and begin to grow vigorously when the plants are up a few inches, 4 inches apart in rows. The ground must be laid out for irrigation, and water must be given once a week in dry weather.

Space the rows from nine to twelve inches apart, according to the character of the sort and the size of bulbs required. Drills must be drawn across the bed, at right angles to the alleys, for when drawn the other way it is difficult to keep the bed properly weeded. For a crop of onions intended for storing, the seed should be only just covered with fine earth taken from the alleys and thrown over, after which the drills must be lightly trodden, the surface again touched over with the spade, and if the soil is dry and workable, the business may be finished by lightly patting the bed all over with the back of the spade. If the ground is damp and heavy, this final touch may be omitted, the onion makes a peak grass that will not easily push through earth that is trodden over it. But speaking generally, an onion bed newly sown should be quite smooth as if finished with a roller. To a beginner this will appear a protracted and complicated story, but the expert will insist that onions require and will abundantly pay for special management.

As soon as possible after the crop is sown the ground between should be delicately chopped over with the hoe to check weeds that will then be rising. Immediately the rows are defined a first thinning should be made with a small hoe, care being taken to leave a good plant on the ground. Keep the hoe at work, for if weeds are allowed to make way, the crop will be seriously injured. When onions are doing well they lift themselves up and on the earth, needing light and air round their bulbs to the very axis whence the roots diverge. If weeds spread amongst them the bulbs are robbed of air, light, and their keeping properties are impaired. But in the use of the hoe it is important not to loosen the ground or to wad any earth towards the bulbs. Really good onions are rarely produced in loose soil, and hence the necessity for care in the

use of the hoe. Watering is not often needed.

If an attack of mildew is occurred, a dusting of flowers of sulphur will prove effective if applied immediately the disease appears. Sulphide of potassium, one ounce to a gallon of water, is also a reliable remedy.

HARVESTING

The harvesting of the crop requires as much care as the growing of it. If the crop goes well, the bulbs will ripen naturally and being drawn and dried on the ground for a few days may be gathered up and topped and tailed or bunched as may be most convenient. But there may be a hesitation of the plant in finishing growth, the result, perhaps, of cool moist weather, when dry hot weather would be better. In this case the growth may be checked by passing a rod (as the handle of a rake, for example) over the bed to bend down the tops. After this the tops will turn yellow and the necks will shrink, and advantage must be taken of fine weather to draw the onions and lay them out to dry.

As to keeping onions, dry, cool, and airy place will answer. But if a difficulty arises there is an easy way out of it, for onions may be hung in bunches on an open wall under the shelter of the eaves of any building, and thus the outsides of barns and stables and cottages may be converted into onion stores, leaving the inside floor for things that are less able to take care of themselves. During severe frost the tops must be taken down and piled up anywhere in a safe place, but may be put on the hooks again when the weather softens, for a slight frost will not harm them in the least, and the wall will keep them comparatively firm and dry. When the best part of the crop has been bunched or roped, the remainder may be thrown into a heap in a cool dry shed, and a few mats put over them will prevent sprouting for at least three months. But damp will start them into growth, and the only way to save them is to top and tail them again, and store as dry as possible in shallow baskets or boxes.

PLANTAIN

The plantain, or "Musa paradissical" as the scientists call it, is perhaps nowhere

he world so much associated with religion as in India. No auspicious ceremony or festival of the Hindus can be commenced without the customary high religious ceremony unless its utility is undoubted and it may be easily assumed that the plantain has always proved to be of immense value to Indians. The presence of wild and cultivated plantain in India is due to the fact that plantain is both a native of India and that its cultivation in this country dates from prehistoric times. Several varieties of plantains are to be found in India and abroad but it is pretty certain that all of them proceed from one stock. There are, at present about twenty varieties of plantains which under different local names are well known both in Northern and Southern India. The term "banana" is generally substituted for plantain outside India, but to avoid confusion, it should be applied to those varieties of plantains only which are eaten raw and uncooked.

As a result of modern investigation of food materials, eminent experts have come to the conclusion that it would be hard to find another food product which possesses, weight for weight, the same nutritive value as plantain. There are still varieties in the world, e.g., the great lake regions of Africa and certain portions of Central America where people mainly depend on ripe and unripe plantains for their ordinary food. Even during the late war millions of men of Central Europe lived on fried banana products an important auxiliary in making up their diminished food supply.

As a food product plantain is used in several ways. The small ripe, sweet hydrated fruits find a large sale under the name of banana figs. Large sized fruits, richer in starch than sugar, are made into meal or flour much used in food products and confectionery. A jelly is also prepared from the ripe fruits. In the case of the mature but unripe fruits of a variety of plantain (Kanchkela), the pith of the abortive flower at the end of the inflorescence (Mocha) are all used as ingredients of several much relished dishes. The lower portion of the stem of the plantain contains a large amount of starch and provides food to the poor in times of famine and scarcity.

Although plantain is to be found everywhere in India except in the driest and coldest regions, it is difficult to form an estimate of the area under it, it being included in the Agricultural Statistics in the general heading of "Orchard crops." In the Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras and in Orissa the average of plantain must be large judging from the number of gardens met with on every side. It cannot however, be said that the merits of the plantain have been sufficiently appreciated in India. In comparison with the West Indies where banana forms one of the most important sources of wealth very little attention has been paid to the production of plantains in India. Wet plantain is not a difficult crop to grow. A large number of varieties of soil will suit plantain, provided there is enough moisture and no chance of water logging. Some of the best plantations are even near the sea coast but plantain grows equally well hundreds of miles inland. Protection from high winds is however, always necessary. While it is very much desirable that there should be ample extension of the area under plantains extension of area only will not serve the higher economic purposes unless determined efforts are made to utilise plantains on modern lines. Following is a list of some of the popular varieties :— Martaman, champa, chini-champak, kanthali, anupan, ram-rambha, kanai-bashi, agnishwar, Bombay, Kabuli, Singapuri.

SOIL

The banana will grow on moist soils. It delights in the climate of the coast, but will grow whenever it can get plenty of water and where it is protected from hot drying winds i.e. to say clayloam soil not subject to water-logging and situated close to tank, jhil, or canal can be chosen for the cultivation of plantain. The land is next ploughed and cross-ploughed several times.

CULTIVATION

The banana plant has no seed, but is propagated by young plants which bud from the under ground tuberous stem, or "bulb," as it is called, of an old plant. This bulb at first gets all its food material from the parent bulb but very soon forms leaves and roots of its own. Its first

leaves—second leaves—are very long and narrow as compared with those developed later. When the young plant is 6 or 8 months old, it is about 9 or 10 feet high, and its own bulb is 8 or 10 in. across. This is cut clean away from the parent, and the roots trimmed off. It may be planted as it is but for convenience of carrying and to prevent its being blown over before its roots anchor it, it is cut down to within 6 in. of its bulb. This bulb soon shoots, both from the centre and from eyes all round. If a bulb is cut vertically, the eyes or young buds can be traced, clearly showing that the bulb is a stem structure.

The suckers of desired variety are not collected and these are planted in a row 12 feet apart each way in the beginning of the rainy season. The pit should be made a cubit deep and manured.

MANURING

The banana is a gross feeder and needs liberal manuring, best given in three doses, one month, two months, after planting, castor cake 10 lbs. plus fish 15 lbs. per tree is an excellent manure. Castor cake 4 lbs. sulphate of ammonia 1 lb. sulphate of potash $4/5$ lb. and calcium superphosphate $7/8$ lb. has proved useful. Green manuring is desirable once a year and the soil must be kept well hard.

The first crop comes in 10-12 months from planting, and is poorer than any succeeding crops. Succeeding crops in well treated plantations should come on every 5 months and be twice the weight of the first crop. When a banana tree has fruited it dies and must be cut out; its makers replace it. There is an art in regulating these suckers. One should be half grown when the old tree is fruiting, and another should be about 2 feet high—others being cut out. A successive of fruiting trees is thus obtained and overcrowding prevented. The number of fruits per tree is greatly increased with good manuring and cultivation, and is decreased by neglect. After 5 years a banana plantation should be cut out and the land given to other crops for 3 years before are put on it again. The fruit bunches severed when the fruit is full-grown and is hung up in a dark cool place to ripen. In the ripening process the starch of the fruit changes to sugar, and proportion of pulp to skin increases. A

disease (black rot) due to the fungus *Gloeosporium musarum* occasionally attacks the fruits both on the tree and in store. It can be prevented by spraying with ammoniacal copper carbonate.

PINE-APPLE

The pine-apple is regarded as one of the most delicious fruits met with in tropical regions. It is known to botanists as *Ananas Sativa*, a familiar plant being native of South America from where it appears to have been dispersed all over the world and acclimatised in many tropical and sub-tropical countries. Spaniards called it *Pinas* from its resemblance to the pine-cone but the Portuguese named it *Ananas* being adapted to their own tongue its Brazilian name *Não*.

The pine-apple was first introduced to the West coast of India by the Portuguese, but it rapidly migrated the coast and attained its greatest perfection on the Eastern Peninsula. From Calcutta through Eastern and Northern Bengal, Assam and Burma may be said to be its Indian habitat yielding a profusion of the delicious fruit, though it also occurs in Java and there throughout India, and is very abundant on the West Coast. It is found not by any means exclusively in the littoral tracts, nor within the inundated areas of India, that the pine-apple has attained its greatest perfection, but rather considerably inland and on the dry, sandy loam of the lower hills and tarai, though the tracts of country subject to a high annual rainfall. "A warm, moist atmosphere and a well-drained sandy loam would appear, therefore, to be the essentials for success with pine-apple." (Watt).

DIFFERENT VARIETIES OF PINE-APPLE

There are various types of pine-apple cultivated in India of which the following are generally recognised :—

1. The Bengal variety is not by any means an indifferent fruit when grown in a situation exposed to the sun. The large intensified fruit sold in quantities are nearly all produced under the shade of trees, the shade conducting as much perhaps to the size as it tends to detract from the flavour.

2. The Ceylon is decided to be the finest in flavour of all. The fruit is rather large, greenish when young and of an orange colour when ripe.
3. The Sylhet or Koomlah variety yields a small fruit with very few but exceptionally large eyes.
4. The Dacca variety produces a remarkably smooth pine with white eyes.
5. The Penang : one or two sorts introduced from Penang differ but little from the ordinary Bengal kind.
6. Conical-crown : a curious variety also introduced from Penang.
7. Streatifolia : a variety introduced from Java.

SOIL : ITS PREPARATION & MANURING

The best suitable soil required for the cultivation of pine-apple is a sandy loam with good drainage and next to it come the free sands and gravels. Clay of all kinds and badly drained lands are unsuited. A good proportion of lime is advantageous and also the animal manures perfectly fitted should be put near the plants as it produces a beneficial effect to their growth. But rich soils and strong manures are quite unsuitable for its cultivation as pointed out by Firminger that the plants may rot and perish from an over supply of manure. Further that soil thoroughly lightened with leaf-mould, well decayed dung and sand is said to be the best in which pine-apples will thrive to perfection.

SEASON FOR PLANTING

The proper season for planting out pine-apples is in the month of August. A soil should be chosen for them where they may be fully exposed to the sun. They should be placed in rows at a distance of 3 feet apart between each row and at a distance of two feet from each other in the row. "A better plan would be to lime the land in rows of 6 feet apart, and plant the suckers at a distance of 3 feet between the rows and after the first crop a few of the suckers could be left and then this could yield more than double fruits for the second crop." (Nicholls). It is most

important to have fairly large spaces between the rows since the plants being spiny the necessary room for working the land has to be provided. Moreover, after uprooting and preparing the land for relining it is possible to set the new plants on the inter-spaces not occupied by the former crop, and thus to continue cultivation on the same land very nearly indefinitely.

PROPAGATION

When the fruit has formed, numerous suckers will be found around the parent stem. These are perfectly selected for propagation, though, of course plants may be raised from the crown of leaves taken from the fruit, and even from the black seeds often found within the fruit itself.

The selected suckers or the green crowns from the fruit are planted in the sand during the rainy season and when they have grown a few inches, they are transplanted on the prepared soil in rows. The oftener the plants are transplanted, the more will their growth and quality be improved.

WATERING

After the rains, no water should be given to the plants till they have set their fruit in February and March, when, as well as during all the time that the fruit is swelling, it should be bestowed abundantly. It is important also that at the same time the leaves should be well cleansed by occasional drenchings from above, in order to remove the dirt and dust that would otherwise clog their pores, and so impede the passing of the water they imbibe at their roots.

TIME OF FRUITS

The pine-apple flowers in February and March, and ripens its fruit in July and August. After which, in September and October it makes its principal growth. It sometimes happens that plants instead of making growth break into flower, and so produce fruit in the cold season. This is by no means desirable, as the fruit produced, unseasonably does not ripen for want of sufficient heat, which is necessary for this purpose ; hence it is almost invariably acid and uneatable. Young-

roots and suckers not required should be removed from the plants as soon as they make their appearance.

The pine-apple is much improved by having the leafy crown of the fruit twisted out when about 4 inches in height, and a piece of the tile laid upon the top. In Bengal the usual method carried out is that the crowns are cut off when nearly full grown but this reduces the flavour to a great extent.

HARVESTING AND METHOD OF TRANSPORT

When the fruits are about to ripen fully, they are cut off with a sharp knife through the middle of the stalk. In despatching to a distant place each fruit should be wrapped in straw or paper, and deposited if possible in a separate compartment for two or three fruits. When either bruised or over-ripe, fermentation takes place and the entire consignment may be ruined through the presence of one fermenting fruit.

PROSPECT

In recent years much attention has been paid to the study of the varieties and races of pine-apple, as also to the methods of cultivation and markets of supply and demand. In India, while the plant is extremely abundant as a fruit grown in gardens and in some localities even no effort has been put forth either to improve the quality or to develop on a commercial scale, the industry of pine-apple growing, which it would appear might be cultivated with advantage to India and profit to those concerned.

PAPAYA

The Papaw or Papaya known to Botanist as *Carica Papaya* is a familiar plant growing abundantly in the plains of India and Ceylon. It is said to be a native of South America from where it is distributed in course of time to the other parts of the globe. Although its fruits satisfactorily in the plains, yet it does not grow well in the hills in colder regions except in South India, where it thrives best as in the plains even at a height of 4,000 feet above sea-level. In foreign countries it is taken as a profitable commodity. For this reason it is cultivated with much care in large tracts of Phillipine Isles, Brazil,

Florida and California. But in India condition is quite different. Here fruit culture is entirely neglected and the people are hankering after services.

But in spite of this fact it is proposed to discuss in this article the cultivation of papaya from the economic point of view so that a number of our unemployed youth may pay their attention to fruit cultivation.

VARIETIES

There are numerous varieties of papaya in cultivation. There are some mammoth varieties the fruits of which weigh about 5 to 6 pounds each. Among the best varieties are the Ranchi, Ceylon, Singapore and Moulmein fruits. Ordinary Bangalore and Madras fruits are also sold in the market. In Bangalore many gardeners sell very good plants which bear railway journey very well, and can be successfully transplanted.

PROPAGATION, ETC.

The papaya grows in all soils and climates in India. But it does very well in red sandy loams. Stiff clay and bare drained swamps or marshy lands are not good. The papaya can be easily raised by sowing seeds. Choose a good fully ripened fruit which is full of flesh, and in which the hollow seed cup is very small containing very few seeds. Take out those seeds and wash them with clear water; and then mix them with some good fine ashes and dry the seeds in the sun. About 15 days, sow these dry seeds in a seed bed in a nursery about one foot apart. In about two months, we get small papaya plants about two feet high. These should be removed with their roots carefully and transplanted in the open fields. The land in which the papaya is to be grown permanently must be well ploughed once in January or February, and a second time one month later. Afterwards dig pits in the ploughed land, 2 feet long, 2 feet broad and 2 feet deep. These pits should be 15 feet distant from each other in all ways.

TRANSPLANTING

Plant one seedling in each pit. When planting, throw into the pit 5 to 10 pounds of bones. Then fill up the pit by mixing

a basketful of well decayed cowdung or horse manure or road sweepings. Then water the plants. For about a month after watering water plants regularly two or three times a week if there is no rain. The seedlings would then have established themselves and rooted freely. The best season for transplanting is from July to the end of October. But being hardy plants, except during the months of May and June, when it is very hot, they may be planted any time.

It is to be noted here that as a papaya plant possesses only one main root with a few side roots, which penetrates deeply into the ground, it is very difficult to transplant without any injury to the plant. So particular attention should be given in transplanting.

MANURING AND IRRIGATION

If the gardener wants to have good and very sweet fruits in abundance, the papaya plants must be irrigated during the hot months and also when the young fruits are maturing, about once a week in light sandy soils or loams ; and once in 10 days in clay or other retentive soils.

The best manure for papaya plants is horse dung, which is only one or two months old. Every year the soil round each tree to a distance of about two or three feet should be dug to a depth of about one foot, and one basketful of horse dung weighing about 25 lbs. mixed with the soil. This mixture is put into the pits and pressed firmly. Horse dung is a heating manure, and is available as plant food very soon after it is applied. Therefore it is necessary to water the plants well or irrigate the garden, soon after the manure is applied. The manure is generally applied from November to February during the cold weather.

MALE AND FEMALE TREES

Among the papaya, some trees bear only male flowers ; and others bear only female flowers. The male trees are barren and will never bear fruit. In the female tree also, the female flower must be fertilised by the pollen of the male flower. Therefore it is necessary to have a few male trees also in the papaya garden. One male tree can

fertilise 100 female trees. The male tree can be distinguished from the female tree as soon as it begins to flower. The male flowers are borne in clusters in long pendulous bunches or racemes ; and are fragrant. The female flowers on the other hand, though bigger, have only a very short stalk and have little or no smell.

OUTTURN

Each tree yields on an average about 100 fruits a year, which weigh about 200 to 300 lbs. Though the trees bear all the year round, the best fruits are got in the cold weather, between the months of October and March. To obtain good choiced fruits, it is best to thin the fruits i.e. to remove about one-third or half the number of fruits growing on the tree ; when they are yet very small and tender.

PROPERTIES AND USES OF PAPAYA

Besides affording a valuable vegetable fruit, a most valuable digesting ferment known as papain or vegetable pepsin can be easily manufactured from the milky juice of the fruit. This papain is recognised by medical authorities both here and abroad and is largely used by them. We get about one gramme of milky juice from each fruit. So from one acre yielding about 50,000 fruits we get over 60 lbs. of juice, from which we get about 20 lbs. of dry papain. In Madras the price of 1 ounce of papain made in Germany is Re. 1/-. The papaya tree wards off mosquitoes and thus affords protection against malaria.

The fruits are delicious and contain vitamins. The fruits cure enlargement of the spleen and many other diseases. The ripe fruit is eaten by all classes of people and is esteemed innocent and wholesome. A wonderful range in quality is observable. In some localities such as Hazaribagh in Chota-Nagpur and Gauhati in Assam, the fruit is large and very sweet, in others it is small, coarse and hardly edible. The better qualities of the ripe fruit are eaten with a little sugar and fresh lemon juice, and by some people with pepper and salt.

The papaya has also its industrial use. The milky juice of this fruit is used in softening tasar cocoons and thus facilitating their being reeled, has recently received some attention. Moreover as already

mentioned above from the papaya juice vegetable pepsin or papain is obtained.

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-PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPES

HAIR TONIC

Beta naphthol	10 gr.
Quinine hydrochloride	5 "
Resorcin	10 "
Bay rum	5 fl. oz.
Distilled water to make	20 " "
Mix all together in a stoppered bottle.	

STAINLESS IODINE OINTMENT

Iodine	1 oz.
Oleic acid	4 "
Soft paraffin	14 "
Hard paraffin	1 "

Dissolve the iodine in the oleic acid and intimately with the paraffin.

SCURF POMADE

Salicylic acid	30 grains.
Borax	15 "
Soft paraffin	1 oz.
Balsam of Peru	30 grains.
Oil of Cinnamon	3 drops.
Oil of bergamot	10 "
Mix.	

KIDNEY PILLS

Powdered squill	$\frac{1}{2}$ gr.
Powdered digitalis	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Potassium nitrate	2 "
Extract of buchu	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Oil of juniper	$\frac{1}{2}$ drop.
Make into one pill.	

These pills are diuretics and stimulants of the urinary tract constitute the active principle.

COUGH DROPS

Brown sugar	10 lbs.
Tartaric acid	2 oz.
Cream of tartar	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Water	3 pints.
Anise-seed flavouring	q.s.

Melt the sugar in the water, and when at a rapid boil add the cream of tartar. Cover the pot for 5 minutes. Remove the liq. and let the sugar boil up to crack degree i.e., if a quantity of syrup is allowed to drop on the cool floor it once sets to a hard mass. At this stage turn the batch on an oiled stone slab, and when cool enough to handle mould in the acid and flavouring, pass it through the acid drop roller and when the drops are chipped up, and before sifting, rub some icing sugar with them.

PAIN BALM

Yellow vaseline	10 parts.
Methyl salicylate	2 "
Oil of Cajuput	2 "
Oil of Eucalyptus	2 "
Menthol	2 "
Camphor	2 "
Wool fat	20 "

Mix thoroughly in a stone mortar and put in wide-mouthed bottles. It may be rubbed gently over the affected parts.

NEEM, CHAULMOOGRA SOAP BY GOLD PROCESS

Coconut oil	20 srs.
Castor oil	2 "
Neem oil	3 "
Chaulmoogra oil	1 sr.
Caustic soda lye 36° Be	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ srs.
Soap green	2 dr.
Now take boiling water q. s. to dissolve :—	
Ichthyol	1 lb.
Thyme oil	4 oz.
Oil citronella	4 "

Put the oils into a suitable vessel, mix the medicines and stir in the lye. Then add the colour and stir until the mixture thickens. Now pour into the frame.

TONIC TABLETS

Calcium hypophosphites	50 grains.
Manganese hypophosphites	25 "
Potassium hypophosphites	25 "
Iron hypophosphites	25 "
Quinine hypophosphites	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Strychnine	$\frac{1}{2}$ grain.
Potato starch, in powder	200 grains.
Sucrose, in powder,	
to make	350 "

Mix the hypophosphites of calcium, manganese and potassium with strychnine, and grind well together in a mortar. Dissolve the iron hypophosphite in a little water, granulate the mixed powders with the solution, and dry the granules. Powder the dried granules, and pass together with the starch, through a sieve, and make up to the required weight with sucrose. Make into 800 sugar-coated tablets.

LIME PEPSIN

Pure pepsin 260 gr.; distilled water 3 oz.; glycerine 3 oz.; alcohol 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; refined talcum $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; lime juice, enough to make 1 pint. Mix pepsin with 8 oz. of lime juice. Dissolve in water and add glycerine and alcohol, and finally the remainder of the lime juice. Mix well talcum and let stand for a few days, stirring it occasionally. Filter. This will make 3 seers of syrup. This is a very good preparation for promoting digestion.

—Recipes for Small Manufacturers

KHUS KHUS ESSENCE

Procure 12 oz. of khus khus root. Free it from dirt and pound it finely. Now soak the powder in 16 oz. of alcohol and keep into a wide-mouthed stoppered bottle. After a month filter through filter paper and keep in bottles for use.

ROOF STOPPING

Rosin	56 lbs.
Paraffin wax	20 "
Calcined flint	40 "
Raw linseed oil	3 gallons.
Red lead	3 lbs.
Wood tar	3 "
Salted lime	3 "

Boil the oil with the red lead, melt in the rosin and the wax. Heat the tar and lime together, add to the oil mixture, then add the calcined flint and thoroughly mix.

PINEAPPLE VINEGAR

Pare the pine-apple and cut into slices. Pound the slices on a clean stone slab and express the juice. Strain and take 10 srs. Put into an earthen vessel, and apply heat. Remove when it bubbles up and strain when cool. Fill a wide-mouthed jar with it, close the mouth well and place in the sun and dew. After 10 or 12 days a film will form, then strain and put back again in the jar. Finally when the film ceases to appear, strain and bottle.

BENGAL CHUTNEY

One pound of tamarind pulp, one pound of sultana raisins, the grated rind and half the juice of 12 lemons, one pound of tomato pulp, one pound of minced apples, a quarter of a pound of peeled garlic, six chopped onions, half a pound of red chillies, one pound of ginger in powder, one pound of moist sugar, and four quarts of strong vinegar. Mix the whole thoroughly together and keep it for a month in a warm place to ferment; stir it occasionally, and then put it into small jars.

ASBESTOS CEMENT

Asbestos cement is generally used when the vessels are exposed to a high temperature and also when the cemented vessels are intended to hold corrosive acids.

I.

Asbestos powder	2 parts.
Barium sulphate	3 "
Sodium silicate	2 "

By mixing these substances, a cement may be obtained which will not be affected by nitric acid. But if the cement is to be exposed to hot concentrated acids, the following mixture is recommended.

II.

Sodium silicate	2 parts.
Fine sand	1 part.
Asbestos powder	1 "

Both these cements take a few hours to set. If quick setting cement is required use potassium silicate instead of sodium.

ARTIFICIAL IVORY

Mix 8 parts of shellac with 32 parts of ammonia solution of specific gravity 0.991, shake into solution in revolving cylinder about 5 hours. The result of the operation will be a complete solution of the consistency of a thin syrup. Add to this 40 parts of zinc oxide mix thoroughly with the hand, and then grind the mixture in a colour-mill. The ammonia is then expelled by heating. The residue is completely dried upon glass plates, ground in a mill, and pressed into moulds with a pressure of as much as a ton to the square inch, at an increase of temperature to about 400°F. The product when taken from the mould, is of a pure white colour and closely resembles ivory.

STICK COSMETIC

Benzoylated lard	1½ oz.
White wax	3 "
Oil of bergamot	1 dr.
Oil of cassia	10 m.
Oil of thyme	5 "

Melt the wax, add the lard, and stir until creamy; then add the perfume and pour into suitable moulds.

POLISHING JUTE TWINE

The following recipe reproduced from Indian Textile Journal is for a size suitable for polishing jute twines:—

Starch 8 parts; glucose 3 parts, water 10 parts. Place the starch in a large tub and add cold water gradually. Next add the glucose and boil for 20 minutes. Then make a solution of borax 1½ parts, and talc 2 parts, lithopone 1 part, gelatine 3 parts, and water 50 parts.

Heat the mixture in order to dissolve the borax and gelatine. Then combine the two solutions well stirring the while, and boil the water for 20 minutes. Use when cold. Add salicylic acid 1 per cent, if it is to be kept. Lithopone is a mixture of sulphide of zinc and barium sulphate. The following recipes are for suitable for finishing or polishing plaited cords, etc.:—45 gallons of water; 10 lbs. Arca gum; 1 lb. castile soap; 1 oz. borax; 3 lbs. dextrine; 30 lbs. corn starch. Fill up the bath with 45 gallons of water, and bring to a boil after adding the borax. Mix the starch in pails with cold water, then add to the bath again bringing to the boiling point. Mix dextrine in a small quantity of cold water, add this also. Now boil the mixture for 10 minutes, or until thoroughly dissolved. Run into clean pails and use when cold.

—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEMS

Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to write his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful solution. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by letter.

STARTING A MAIL ORDER BUSINESS ON SMALL SCALE

770 K.P.R., Calcutta—Writes how to conduct a small mail order business.

The small mail order man does not necessarily need to make a large success of his business the first year or two for it is then that he is getting his education in this line, and he is little education worth having—be it in mail order or any other line—that does not cost time, money and labour. In this respect the small mail order man differs from the other trades in the mail order business as it is a regular business with them and they cannot afford to spend any time or money in the purchase of experience and so usually enter the trade with an experienced management or background or both.

The first attempt that the small mail order man usually makes in the selling field is in making some novelty that he has reason to believe will appeal to some class of trade with which he has some acquaintance. Of course there are apprehensions of competition in the market and that from various sources. The large catalogue houses handling nearly every kind of goods may compete with him the mail order department of houses which sell by means of a salesman should be noted. But there is not much danger of coming in contact with these classes. The most dangerous competition in all probability come from his rival, the small mail order class.

PRINCIPLES OF RETAIL BUSINESS

1132 R. L. D. Bombay—Desires to be enlightened on how a retail business can be successfully carried on.

The points which a retailer should bear in mind in winning new customers and effecting sales may be summarised thus:—

(1) To treat all who enter the shop, whether they purchase or not, with the same reverence and attention as the most favoured customer, for they may become such in the future.

(2) To meet the incomer with a pleasant smiling look and word as a gentleman would greet an acquaintance at home.

(3) To have an ample supply of sample goods so as to avoid handling goods unnecessarily; but, when the buyer has made a selection of what he would like to see, an expert sales clerk spares no trouble to give him an opportunity to examine the goods himself.

(4) A good retailer does not show indifference whether the customer purchases or not, and does not urge him to buy what he does not seem to want nor manifests so much anxiety to sell as to create the impression that there must be good profit in the sale.

(5) A good retailer talks enough to explain what the customer ought to know as to the cause of difference in price and value of various articles of merchandise; but at the same time, he should avoid too much talking especially on outside matters during a negotiation of sale. Discretion in speech is more than eloquence.

(6) A good retailer pays deference to the opinions of the customers and does not make them feel that he knows everything and do nothing.

(7) A good retailer does not enter into contentious argument with customers, nor, when they deprecate his goods, answers back rudely, but either insinuates that they are trying to cheapen the merchandise, or expresses regret that the article does not suit.

(8) A good retailer calls attention of his customers to the special bargains he may have to offer and does not expatiate on them as something unprecedented and wonderful, on the contrary, creates the impression that bargains are nothing unusual or rare in that store.

(9) A good retailer endeavours to ascertain the price the customer expects to pay and does not begin by showing something much higher in prices and superior in quality and then goes down to the grades than can be offered at the price named lest the customer becomes dissatisfied with the inferior quality and wishes to look further.

(10) A good retailer who feels that a price is necessary to effect a sale does not wait for the customer to make an offer but proposes a reduction voluntarily as a favour or for some friendly reason and not as a rule of the establishment.

(11) A good retailer has a quick appreciation of the wants of buyers and does not continue with equal praise on all kinds of style of goods to all persons but catches at the fancy of the customer and presses delicately upon that; or, if it is an unjudicious choice, he points out its defect and produces a more suitable article and thus inspires confidence.

(12) A good retailer as a thorough knowledge of human nature, courteous manners, and a ready tact.

—BRIEF QUERIES AND REPLIES

Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from experts will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of As. 8 stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two international Reply coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters.

749 J.N.S., Puri—For pane glass write to United Provinces Glass Works Ltd., Bahjoi, Moradabad and Victoria Glass Works Ltd., 130, Mechuabazar Street, Calcutta.

750 E.M.I., Dacca—We have no book on sheet metal industry. You may however write to Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

752 P.N.P., Umar—For Japanese machine enquire of Chimanlal Desai & Co., 54, Bentinck Street, Calcutta.

753 A.S.F., Jodhpur—Crown corks may be had of Crown Cork Manufacturing Co., 1, Umakanta Sen Lane, Calcutta. For Crown cork making machines enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, Calcutta.

754 K.C.I., Khagaria—Process of manufacturing papain will appear in due course. For books enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta. For machine enquire of Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place, Calcutta.

756 N.N.P., Bankura—Process of manufacturing soap will be found in Manufacture of Soap published from this office, price Rs. 4/9/- including postage. Process of manufacturing alfa will be found in Indian Perfumes, Essences and Hair Oils published from this office, price Rs. 4/9/- including postage.

757 A.S.F., Karachi—Process of manufacturing lead pencil will be found in Industry Prize Articles Vol. 1 published from this office, price Rs. 2/- including postage. Wirenails are manufactured from wire by means of a machine which may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. You may consult The Plastic Industry price Re. 1/-. You may also consult Chemical Industries of India published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

760 H.N.R., New Delhi Detailed information regarding artificial pearl manufacture is not available.

761 A.P.J., Rohtak—Wood working machine may be had of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension; both of Calcutta. Needle making machine is not available in India at present. For needle making machine write to B. Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A.

763 P.S.M.S., Bowringpet—Quill pen may be had of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta.

765 V.R., Khargpur—All the chemicals you require may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street; both of Calcutta.

769 B.A.P., Madras—For starting any kind of business you require capital large or small. You may start a business with a small capital but extend it gradually.

770 H.V. Madras—For galvanised pipes and fittings enquire of the following firms: Sankar Pipe and Industries Works, 49, Dr. Ambedkar Rd., Howrah; Jogendra Nath Chatterjee & Sons Ltd., 21, Maharshi Debendra Road, Calcutta 7 and Indian Engineering & Works, 115, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

772 R.A.E.W., Lahore—Mica sheets may be had of Calcutta Mica Corporation, 161, Taram Babu Street, Calcutta and Indian Mica Supply Co. Ltd., 95, Lower Chitpur Road, Calcutta.

773 P.R.A., Pudukad—Paper pulp machinery books may be had of All India Village Industries Association, Maganvadi, Wardha, C. P.

775 M.R.S., Ajmer—For blocks enquire of N. D., 1-1, Bhim Ghose Lane, Calcutta.

776 M.T.C., Rangoon—Following formula of laundry blue tablets. Ultramarine blue 6 oz.; sodium carbonate 4 oz.; glue 1 oz.; water sufficient quantity. Make a paste, roll into sheets and cut into tablets.

777 J.S., Chapra—Lead pencils are manufactured by the following firms:—F. N. G. & Co., 12, Belliaghata Road, Calcutta; G. Law & Co. Ltd., 2, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta; Hindustan Pencil Ltd., 428, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay and Madras Pencil Factory, 5, Street, G. T., Madras.

781 L.S.P., Bhadrak—A good formula of scented sesame or til oil appeared in March issue of Industry.

784 D.P.B., Calcutta—Formulas of adhesive paste will be found in April 1951 issue of Industry.

785 S.V.W., Bombay—Following is a formula of textile crayons:—French chalk 20 parts, pipeclay 20 parts; white curd soap 6 parts. Make into a stiff paste with water and dry.

HARIKUME'S

Hosiery Needles

(Made in Japan)

AGENTS & STOCKISTS:

DAWN & CO.,

11, PORTUGUESE CHURCH ST.,

CALCUTTA - 1.

Grams:

Phones:

Old dawn.

B. B. 514 & 5755.

786 H.H.S.C., Choharpur—Formulas of soap, tooth powder, etc. will appear in due course.

787 T.P.M., Calcutta—There is no arrangement for giving practical training in rubber baloon manufacture and ebonite tube manufacture. You should try to be an apprentice in a rubber factory.

788 M.I., Calcutta—You may consult Small Industries published from this office, Price Rs. 2/- including postage. You may also consult our other publications such as Indian Perfumes, Essences and Hair Oils; Home Industries; Manufacture of Syrup and Cold Drinks, etc.

789 M.P.C., Rani—In order to improve agency business you should take agency of known goods only. Then you should approach both wholesale and retail dealers for selling the articles for which you have taken agency.

791 C.L.K.C., Bulandshahr—Formulas of ink will be found in April 1950 issue of Industry.

793 Y.N.B.C., Mettur—Confectionery machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. Fruit essences may be had of Essence & Bottle Supply Agency, 1, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta and Paradise Perfumery House, 7, Colootola Street, Calcutta.

794 J.B., Aligarh—For Kinemascope enquire of Bepin Behari Dass & Grandson, 63FG, Radha Bazar Street and Sat Cowrie Dass & Co., 146, Old China Bazar Street; both of Calcutta.

795 B.U.T.C., Mandalay—Brown colour of powder is due to the presence of impurities in the powder. Impurities may be ordinary dust or iron compound. You have to eliminate the impurities by washing several times.

798 M.C.M.W., Morvi—Acids are manufactured by the following firms:—Bengal Acid & Chemical Manufacturing Co., 217, Bagmari Road; Bengal Acid Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 66, & 67, Bagmari Road; Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 164, Manicktala Main Road and D. Waddie & Co. Ltd., Clive Bldg., Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta. Soda of soda is manufactured by Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane; Punjab Silicate Works, 28, Bagmari Road and Sree Durga Silicate of Soda Factory, 22, Burdwan Street; all of Calcutta.

799 S.M., Akola—Process of manufacturing electric heater coil will appear in due course.

803 N.I.T., Bombay—Following is a formula of transparent paper varnish:—Copal 3 oz.; Camphor 1½ dr.; Turpentine oil 12 oz.; Oil of Sandal 3 oz. Dissolve the copal and camphor in the oil of turpentine and then add the oil of lavender.

804 H.L.R., Agra—For watch straps of plastic enquire of International Sales Corporation, 23/90, Connaught Circus, New Delhi; K. A. Zaveri & Co., 89, Princess street, Bombay.

806 H.S., Bahanpur—For selling beeswax and honey you may negotiate with Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street and Indian Herb Store, 31, Mullick Street; both of Calcutta.

807 B.K., Hardwar—For pumps to be used for agricultural purpose enquire of Hassanaally & Son, 36, Netaji Subhas Road; Indian Pump Co., 190C, Rashbehari Avenue and Mirlees Watson Co. Ltd., Grosvenor House; all of Calcutta.

808 G.S.R., Calcutta—You may negotiate with the following institute:—Indian Institute of Electronic Technology, 8B, Raja Naba Krishna Street, Calcutta.

813 H.I.C., Gadag—We have no book on refrigeration mechanism. You may however enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and W. Newman & Co. Ltd., 3 & 4, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

815 R.L.S., Kakinada—To communicate with any querist write him with number and initials care of Industry when your letters will be duly redirected.

816 B.I.W., Poona—For saffron enquire of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta and Indian Herb Store, 31, Mullick Street, Calcutta. Addresses of Spain are not available.

818 M.M.A.M., Rambukkana—For fountain pen engraving machine enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, Calcutta.

820 A.G.P., Passara—Following is a list of die makers and engravers:—A. B. Sinha & Co., 14, Upper Chitpore Road; Dass Brothers, 14, Garanhata Street; and Art Emporium, 9, Brindaban Basak Street; all of Calcutta.

821 A.C., Kanpur—Vide No. 820 above.

822 A.K., Sharakpur—For glass ware enquire of the following firms:—Balsukh Glass Works, 7, Swallow Lane; Bengal Glass Factory, 106, Khengrapatty Street; Burma Glass Works, 9, Ezra Street; Calcutta Glass & Silicate Works, 9, Kundu Lane and Victoria Glass Works, 130, Mechuabazar Street; all of Calcutta.

823 U.C.C., Kanpur—Pin and clip making machines may be had of Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U. S. A.

828 U.P., Palasbari—You better advertise in newspapers for securing a capitalist partner. We cannot introduce you to any man who will invest Rs. 10,000 in saw mill.

MANUFACTURE OF RUBBER GOODS

A treatise exposing in a simple style the manipulation of raw rubber in the manufacture of various rubber goods and giving detailed processes of their Manufacture.

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830 M.D.C.C., Calcutta—For transfer labels enquire of Signograph Co., Baranagar, Calcutta and R. G. Pal & Co., 110/2, Grey Street, Calcutta.

831 A.C.B., Jodhpur—Process of manufacturing rubber balloons will be found in Manufacture of Rubber Goods published from this office, Rs 3/9/- including postage. Process of manufacturing naphthalene balls will be found in Manufacture of Disinfectants and Antiseptics published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

833 T.S., Nandyal—We are not aware of synthetic preparation of menthol.

838 S.K.M., Bombay—Your query regarding cuttings should be advertised in newspapers. Addresses of translators and commercial magazines in different vernacular languages are not available.

840 D.G., Delhi—Machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension; Martin Burn Ltd., 12, Mission Row; Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; T. E. Thomson & Co. Ltd., 9A, Esplanade East; and Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta.

841 B.P.S., Morena—Til oil to be refined is heated with 2 to 5 per cent. of animal charcoal in a vessel over a water bath. This is to ensure that the temperature of the oil is likely to get charred. The whole mass is stirred from time to time so that oil comes in touch with fresh surface of charcoal. The heating is continued for about an hour when the oil is refined. It is then strained through a cloth. You may use sandal oil and musk as fixative agent.

843 B.S., Jarai Kela—Process of manufacturing caustic soda from sodium chloride will be found in Chemical Industries of India published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

844 P.K.A., Trichinopoly — For zinc and tin ingots enquire of the following firms: Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road; B. K. Mookherjee & Sons, 70, Netaji Subhas Road and Standard Metal Co., 101, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta.

852 L.N.D., Jabalpur—All the machineries you require may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta and T. E. Thomson & Co. Ltd., 9A, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

853 J.S.B., Poona — You perhaps mean electrolytic paste which consists of flour, plaster of paris, sal ammoniac and zinc chloride with enough water to make a paste. Following is a formula of hair cream: White beeswax 10

parts; paraffin oil 130 parts; distilled water 1 parts; borax 1 part; perfume 3 parts. Melt wax in 50 parts of paraffin oil. Place in mortar and stir in the remainder of the paraffin. Add the distilled water in which borax has been dissolved and stir the cream formed consistently until cold. Collapsible tubes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta. Collapsible tube filling machine may be had of Industrial Machine Co., 12, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta. Lanoline may be had of Butto Kristo Paul & Co. Ltd., 1 & 3, Bechoo Lane, Calcutta. Bentonite may be had of Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jagan Mohan Lane, Calcutta. Agar agar may be had of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta.

854 L.S.R., Bhadrak—Process of refining coconut oil and coconut oil to be used as hair oil may be found in Indian Perfumes, Essence and Hair Oils published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

859 D.D.A., Andheri — Process of preparing test for ghee will be found in December issue of Industry.

861 M.A.A., Bhongir—A formula of hair cream will be found in June, 1950 issue of Industry.

862 D. B., Lushai Hills—For enamel nameplates enquire of the following firms: Enamel & Stamping Works, Ltd., 9, Middle Road, Calcutta and Bengal Enamel Works, Palta, 24 Parganas.

863 R.P.V., Banaras — For drug information you may write to the Director, Central Drug Laboratory, Govt. of India, 110, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

864 J.N., Puri—Palm oil is not extracted from palm or tal fruits. Palm oil is available from North and South Africa and in some parts of Burma.

865 K.T.C., Morvi City—Agarbatti manufactured by the following firms: K. L. Gupta Agarbatti Factory, 6, Apparao Street, Nagarthpet, Bangalore City; Mysore Agarbatti Factory, Kalamma Temple, Mysore; Mysore Shah Agarbatti Factory, Devaraj Market Bldg, Post Box 31, Mysore; and Sree Satyanarayana Parimal Factory, Jagan-Mohan Palace Square, Mysore. For matches of required brand enquire of W. India Match Co. Ltd., Indian Merchants Chambers, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

866 U.P.T., Moulmeingyun — Process of manufacturing mosquito repelling powder surti zarda, phenyle, etc. will appear in next issue of Industry.

WIDE-WORLD ENGLISH CORRESPONDENCE

By K. M. BANERJEE,

THE EXPERIENCE OF A QUARTER OF A CENTURY OF
THE PEOPLE'S NEEDS IS BEHIND THE BOOK.

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867 U.C.C., Kanpur—Process of manufacturing water colour cakes will be found in May, 1951, issue of Industry. Following is a formula of sealing wax: Shellac 14 parts; Rosin 24 parts; Vermillion 1½ parts; Barytes 14 parts; Whiting 4 parts; Turpentine 4 parts. Melt the shellac and rosin over a slow fire, keep hot and mix in the pigments. Lastly add the turpentine oil. Cast into sticks. For mould enquire of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

868 K.S.J., Kanjirapally—There is no arrangement for giving practical training in manufacture of carbon paper. You cannot manufacture brushes with the brittle vegetable fibres. Sealing wax making mould may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

869 V.H.P., Kolhapur—Match making machines may be had of Standard Machinery Works, 86B, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

871 H. L. J., Delhi—Process of manufacturing black salt appeared in August, 1951 issue of Industry.

873 D.R.T., Bombay—We are not aware of such chemical that will prevent charring of iron buttons when ironing.

876 K. M. S., Peshawar—Process of mercerising cotton appeared in June, 1951 issue of Industry.

877 S.M.E., Gudibanda—Date seeds are used in coffee manufacture.

878 S.S.R.R.C., Pallatur—Process of manufacturing sago appeared in June, 1949 issue of Industry. For machines enquire of Central Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., 11, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta and Industrial Machineries & Tool Mfg. Co., 11, Chananantola Road, Howrah. Starch is used as raw material for manufacturing sago.

879 W.S.C., Karachi—Strawboard may be had of Bharat Straw-board Co., 55, Ali Chamber, Tamarind Lane, Fort, Bombay; and Straw Board Mfg. Co., Saharanpur. For panel pins enquire of Utility Products Ltd., 14, Bentinck Street, Calcutta.

881 D.S.R., Bapatla—Brick and tile making machines and other machines you require may be had of Martin Burn Ltd., 12, Mission Row, Calcutta.

882 K.K.D.C., Belgaum—Refer your query to the Director, Imperial Veterinary Research Institute, Mukteswar, Kumaun, Nainital. For book on chemical industries enquire of Eker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade, Calcutta.

883 Q.C.W., Ahmedabad—A good formula for sizing agent will appear in due course.

884 S., Lucknow—Process of bluing iron manufacturing lice killer and making ink will appear in due course.

885 A.P.J., Rohtak—For cigarette making machine enquire of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. Cotton spinning machine may be had of W. H. Brady & Co. Ltd., Mercantile Bldg., Lall Bazar, Calcutta. For safety pin making machine write to Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A.

887 S.V., Kanpur—Process of nickel plating and chromium plating will be found in Electroplating in Practice published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage. Process of manufacturing cycle saddle cover will appear in due course.

889 B.N.S., Lucknow—For celluloid sheets enquire of A. K. Zainuddin & Co., 122, Bhindi Bazar, Mohamadi Manzil, Bombay 3 and Swadeshi Industries Ltd., 100, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta. For mould enquire of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. Acetone may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta.

891 B.B.R., Darrang—Following is a list of hardware dealers: B. C. Kumar & Bros., 42, Strand Road; B. K. Mookherjee & Sons, 70, Netaji Subhas Road; B. Roy Bros., 113, Manohar Das Chowk and Bombay Hardware Mart, 82, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta.

892 T.S., Patiala—Creosote oil may be had of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road and Turner Morrison & Co. Ltd., 6, Lyons Range, both of Calcutta.

893 S.L.G., Farrukhabad—You may start a chemist's shop. But before starting the shop you should obtain some experience in the line. You may approach manager of a big chemist's shop to be an apprentice to learn the secret of the business.

895 N.D., Srimangal—Lozenge making machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. Following is a list of lozenge manufacturers: B. C. Datta, 71, Canning Street; C. & E. Morton (India) Ltd., 8, Royal Exchange Place; Empire Confectionery Co., 157, A, Dharamtala Street; James Lord & Sons Ltd., 5, Commercial Bldgs. and U. P. Confectionery, 71/1, Canning Street; all of Calcutta.

897 M.S.B., Chikmagalur—For iron mortar and pestle enquire of the following firms: New India Hardware Mart, 152, Narayan Dhuru Street, Bombay 3; Shah & Brothers, 234, Nagdevi Street, Bombay and Lachmi Hardware Stores, 113, Manohar Das Chowk, Calcutta.

898 G.K., Ranchi—You may take agency of Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 161, Manicktala Main Road; Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., Panditya Road and Bengal Immunity Co. Ltd., 153, Dharamtala Street; all of Calcutta.

**A HELPFUL BOOK OF REFERENCE ON MODERN METHODS
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-REVIEW OF BOOKS

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH by David Bendel Hertz, Ph.D., Professor of Industrial Engineering, Columbia University. Published by Mc Graw Hill Book Company, Inc., New York. Pages 385, price \$ 5.50.

The advantages of industrial research are now widely recognised all over the industrialised countries of the world and there is hardly a big industrial organisation without a department for conducting research work. Practically a company which wants to keep up leadership in competition with its rivals has got to keep its vigilant eyes on the improvement of its products and processes, and introductions of new ones in the market. New inventions and processes in the domain of pure science are daily coming to light and the possibility of their application to the particular industries is to be worked out carefully. Moreover independent research work is to be always kept in view to further improve the standard of production and to introduce new lines of manufactures. The book under review discusses in a comprehensive way the fundamental basis of research work, both in its theoretical and practical aspects. Although research work is now-a-days being undertaken on a wider scale in India than formerly and National Laboratories have been set up for scientific investigations and enquiries in various lines, literature about the theoretical and practical aspects of this subject is rather scarce. The book throws a flood of light on this subject and as such should be widely read for deriving the best benefit from the research projects and programmes.

The book commences with a brief and intelligent account of scientific investigations from the days of Aristototle and Plato down to the period of Pascal and Laplace and traces the gradual evolution of reasoning processes and development of research methods which form the tools in the hands of modern researchers. The book then proceeds with the magnitude of research in industrial fields like chemicals, dyes, textiles etc. and evaluates the benefits accruing from it to the society.

The special feature of the book is however scientific discussions of the various aspects which are to be taken into account when a particular research work is contemplated. The first step in the scheme is an analysis of the research processes which combines creative mentalities, problems, methods and solution with a view to attaining a rational methodology for the enterprise to adopt. Complexities of the problems under research, the offshoots of the problems, the availability of the raw materials required for the purpose, the selection of a particular method are to be given first consideration. The other factors which are to be considered are the cost of each alternative processes in hand in terms of the final manufacturing cost, amount of capital which may be available from the company's surplus or from

other sources to utilise the results of the research work, the total cost of research work etc., etc. Another question is whether the research personnel is competent to carry out the work in a satisfactory manner. In connection investigations are equally necessary for research work regarding perfection of existing processes and it becomes necessary to collect market data of sufficient accuracy, and market trends with a view to evaluating the proposal. It is needless to say that research work should be reserved for only such projects as have the chances of highest potential profit. In concluding chapters of the book there are full discussions for the facilities that will be a research worker in solving the problem delegated to him. A general outline has been given of the policy to be followed by a company as regards safeguarding its interests by patenting and agreements. Finally the importance of keeping up relationships with sister organisations and co-ordination of work has been stressed. We recommend the book highly to the notice of all interested in research work.

THE INSURANCE DIRECTORY, 195
Edited by Ashutosh Banerjee, Editor, Insurance Herald. Published by Chhaya Publisher Ltd., 2/1, Mission Row, Calcutta. Pages 260 price Rs. 3/8/-.

The present volume, like its predecessor, contains a mass of valuable information on the progress of insurance in India. The features of the book is a comprehensive account showing the position of the various insurance companies operating in India along with their scheduled premium rates, summary of revenue account, distribution of assets, summary of value to report, etc., etc. Besides this the book contains a list of names and addresses of insurers working in India with years of registration, a list of actuaries in India, and other interesting data. An important addition to the book is the inclusion of the more important sections of the Insurance Act.

TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write him direct with name and address given below mentioning Industry.)

688 Garsan Commercial Corporation, Sanyogitaganj, Nndore—Wants to know the newspaper of Goa.

111 Master Devi Dayal Tiwari, Sanyogitaganj, Bhopal—Wants to be put in touch with natural magnet stone suppliers of Bagdad, Medina, Mecca, Aden, Iran Gwallior State.

845 S. M. Sharif, Idrees Ganj, Haridwar—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of dried gut, beef and sheep casings and interested in sinewgut.

986 J. N. Parikh, 3, Mangoe Lane, Calcutta 1—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of raw bristles, crushed bones, fish fleshings and electroplating brushes.

—IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

SAFETY CLOTHING

Special clothing which protects workers against injurious chemicals has been developed by the Standard Safety Equipment Coy., Chicago. The clothing coated with a Goodrich Company product called yeon resin, is said to hold off the action of inorganic acids, alkalis, salts, hydrocarbons, amines and strong oxidising agents long enough for the worker to wash and change.

RECLAIMING ALUMINIUM FROM SCRAP

A mercury extraction process for reclamation of aluminium from scrap is described.

Normal smelting processes only remove non-metallic impurities or coarse metallic mixtures such as lumps of iron from the aluminium alloy material. Hot mercury acts as a selective solvent for aluminium in typical alloys. The solubility increases with temperature and a value suitable for technical purposes is reached only above the normal b.p. of mercury, thus, requiring the use of pressure vessels.

Intermittent extraction in autoclaves was not satisfactory. In the continuous process, an open hot-cold U-tube having a central horizontal hot section and two cold vertical tubes is employed. The height of the cold tubes is sufficient to balance the mercury vapour pressure of the hot section. The top portions of the vertical columns are kept at room temperature to minimize vapour losses. Wetted crude aluminium passes in counter-current to the mercury, the concentration being properly adjusted during extraction. After solution of the aluminium and mechanical separation from the residue, the mercury passes into a cold zone of the U-apparatus where it crystallizes out on the surface as a silver-white magma. This is skimmed off and pressed to a cake with 70 per cent. of the metal. The remaining mercury is removed by melting at 750°C. out of contact with air. The extraction residue is similarly treated to recover the mercury.

The process may be used for the production of primary aluminium-silicon alloy produced by electro-thermal smelting of bauxite and coke, provided the coke alloy is produced in larger melting units of 20,000 to 30,000 kw. to make it economic.

—INDUSTRIAL CHEMIST.

BLEACHING OF JUTE FIBRE

The rate of bleaching of lignocellulosic materials with chlorine is greatly reduced by blocking the free phenolic or enolic hydroxyl group in the lignin by a methoxyl group. Partial acetylation of jute with a mixture of acetic anhydride and pyridine as well as methylation with an ethereal solution of diazomethane has now been shown to similarly retard the rate of bleaching (Nature, 1950, 166, 1040). The acetylated sample required seven chlorination and

sulphite extractions (by the Cross and Bevan method) for isolation of a lignin-free fraction as against three such treatments in the case of raw jute. The colour reactions associated with lignin after chlorination in acid solution and addition of sodium sulphite were much less marked with the acetylated sample. While the non-acetylated material developed an intense red colour in the cold immediately on adding sodium sulphite to the chlorinated lignin the acetylated material had to be warmed and even boiled before any colour developed. Exposure to light, of the partially acetylated jute, resulted in photo-chemical bleaching and loss of acetyl groups from the sample while the raw jute turned yellow or brown. There was no change in the bleaching rates and colour reactions of acetylated jute before and after exposure to the light of a mercury vapour lamp indicating that the acetyl groups removed during irradiation are not those responsible for retarding the bleaching reactions of acetylated jute.

NEOPRENE AIRDRY COATING

Neoprene, the synthetic rubber made by Du Pont, Washington, can now be applied as an airdry protective coating for industrial maintenance work on structural steel, concrete, wood and exterior surfaces of tanks, and equipment. It is applied by brush or spray gun in a single coat. Outstanding properties are those which distinguish neoprene from natural and other synthetic rubbers: exceptional resistance to oil, grease and chemicals; and resistance to age-cracking by sunlight, weather and ozone. It also possesses the characteristic properties of any rubber product: resilience, elasticity, a high order of abrasion-resistance, and non-cracking properties. The new material has now been named Gaco Neoprene Maintenance Coating. An outstanding feature of the air-dry coating is the fact that it develops its desirable physical properties without the benefit of heat.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

MOISTURE METER FOR TEXTILES

A new British instrument for measuring the moisture content of textiles is based on the fact that a static electric charge develops on warps and cloths of fibrous materials during drying and movement. The magnitude of this charge is related to the moisture content and is independent of the grade and thickness of the cloth.

The electric charge is collected from the full width of the material by means of an electrode which is mounted at the delivery end of the drying machine, the potential being conveyed to a measuring instrument and converted to an indication of the moisture content, and shown by meter and signal lights. Semi or fully automatic control of drying can be operated from this instrument.

—INDIAN & EASTERN ENGINEER.

—FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

PRINTING ON WOOD

In printing wood special consideration must be taken, because the surface of wood is so absorbent, that a priming coat must always be applied to prevent the ink from soaking in, too much. The surface, after being smoothed, is sponged with a mixture of ammonium hydroxylamine hydrochloride, and then with hot water. In case the wood does not absorb water readily, 10 per cent. of glycerin may be added to the hot water.

An alternative procedure involves the use of a coating preparation consisting of a solution of 50 parts of rubber, 30 parts of white wax and 60 parts of Canada balsam in 700 parts of turpentine, 40 parts of linseed oil, and 650 parts parts of benzene. Afterwards the wood may be printed with a fatty ink and subsequently coated with a varnish or lacquer for protection against mechanical and chemical deterioration.

DEPILATORY CREAM

396 J.D.S.K., Palm—Wants to have a recipe of depilatory cream and also hair cream.

Barium sulphide	30	grms.
Atropine	5	"
Spermaceti	100	"
Distilled water	200	"
White petrolatum	300	"

Melt over a water bath and mix and put in pots.

This cream can be used as depilatory or can be applied every day for 20 minutes to stop the growth of unwanted hair.

HAIR CREAM

White beeswax	10	parts.
Paraffin oil	130	"
Distilled water	15	"
Borax	1	part.
Perfume	3	parts.

Melt the wax in 50 parts of paraffin oil. Place in a mortar and stir in the remainder of the liquid paraffin. Add the distilled water in which the borax has been dissolved and stir the cream formed consistently until cold.

GREASE CRAYONS FOR WRITING ON GLASS

537 R.K.G., Dhampur—Wants to have a formula of grease crayons for writing on glass and also glass paint.

White beeswax	40	parts.
Tallow	44	"
Carmine	45	"

Melt the tallow and add the wax in the form of fine flakes. When the wax is also melted, stir in the carmine and keep stirring until the mass has almost solidified. Then pour it into small waxed paper tubes.

INK FOR WRITING ON GLASS

Pale shellac	2	oz.
Venice turpentine	1	"
Sandarac	$\frac{1}{2}$	"
Oil of turpentine	3	dls.

Dissolve by gently heating and then add $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of any one of the following pigments:

Black	--	Lamp-black.
Blue	--	Ultramarine.
Green	--	Brunswick Green.
Red	--	Vermillion.

PAINTING GLASS

Thoroughly clean inside of glass and apply a first coat of a very thin mixture of white paint and turpentine, containing a pint of hard-drying varnish per gallon of turpentine spread rapidly on glass with a soft brush and immediately stipple the paint with a wall stippler.

SNOW

548 H.C.P., Bihar Sharif—Desires to know a good formula of snow.

Stearic acid	24	lbs.
Pot. carbonate	5	"
Glycerin	8	"
Water	12	gals.

Perfume with rose, jasmine or compound scent.

Heat the glycerin, pot. carbonate and water together to 200°F. and add stearic acid (previously heated to 200°F.) to it slowly with stirring in an emulsifier or whipper. Continue stirring until the mass is homogeneous. Allow to stand overnight. Next add the perfume and mix for 20 minutes. This cream is softer than the old-fashioned creams but typifies the highest grade modern vanishing cream. The permanency in this cream increases with age and is helped by stirring cold the next day.

NAPHTHALENE BALLS

563 A.C.B., Jodhpur—Wishes to have a process of making naphthalene balls.

In order to produce naphthalene balls the purified naphthalene is carefully melted at low heat in an ordinary melting pot and ladled into the moulds with an iron ladle. Great care must be taken in melting the substance because at a high temperature it will ignite and be causing a great loss to manufacturers. For casting, iron and wooden mould are generally used. These are made in two halves connected together with pins; in each half a number of hemispherical depressions are sunk in a block with a tube connecting them all together. At one end of the mould is a hole drilled for pouring in the melted mass. On cooling, the ball is solidified into balls, which may be separated by breaking off the attached pipe.

RUBBER BALLOONS

Rubber latex 60%	167 parts by volume.
Colloidal sulphur	
paste 50 p.c.	3 "
Zinc oxide	1 part by weight.
Piperidine piperidine-1-carbothionolate (accelerator)	1/2 " "

The order of addition of the ingredients is important, since many compounding ingredients coagulate latex unless preciously dispersed in water or other emulsifying liquid. The above mixings contain very little solid material and is easily prepared by weighing out the accelerator and zinc oxide, moistening these in water or dilute ammonia solution, and mixing up with the sulphur paste. This mixture is ground to a smooth cream in a mortar and added to the latex with constant stirring until uniformly dispersed.

Having prepared a suitable vulcanisable mix, this may be utilised for dipping. The objects e.g. glazed porcelain, glass, varnished wood, be fitted in a frame are immersed in the latex bath fairly but the rate of withdrawal must be slow and uniform. The forms after withdrawal are inverted and allowed to dry somewhat, and then the necks of the balloons are rolled up to form collars. The rack then passes to the hot air vulcanisers. The temperature of the air and the time of drying or simultaneous vulcanisation are adjusted to the capabilities of the accelerator used in mixing.

The final operation in the production of dipped goods is that of stripping in which the article is peeled off the former on which it has been made.

Fresh unvulcanised or imperfectly vulcanised latex rubber will stick to itself very strongly so that the surfaces can only be separated with great difficulty. Even fully cured surfaces of latex rubber show an inconveniently strong adhesion if pressed into contact; consequently the kind of surface treatment must accompany the stripping of the dipped goods from their formers to prevent the film from rolling and sticking into wrinkles. Commonly, a final dusting is given with French chalk. It has been noticed that where a calcium chloride solution has been used, fully vulcanised goods can be stripped successfully merely by working a little water between the film and the former. Where perfect transparency is to be obtained articles may be stripped under hot water and dried without rinsing.

PEPPERMINT TABLETS

587 N.A.K.,—Desires to have a good formula of making peppermint tablets.

Fine sugar	92 lbs.
Starch	4 " 6 oz.
Powdered gum tragacanth	8 oz.
Gum solution	120 fl. oz.
Peppermint oil	8 " "
Medicinal liquid paraffin	2 " "
Talc	3 lbs. 2 oz.

The gum solution which is used as a moistening agent is made up by dissolving 1 lb. 4 oz. powdered gum acacia in 120 fl. oz. of water.

Now mix the sugar, starch and gum tragacanth. Next moisten the mixture with the gum solution. When base is thoroughly moist pass through No. 8 mesh screen on Oscillating Granulator. Spread the wet granules out to dry. When dried sieve again through No. 12 mesh. Transfer the received dry granules to a mixer and add the peppermint oil, liquid paraffin and talc while the mixer is running. The granules will be ready for compressing after about 10 minutes run.

RECOVERY OF SILVER FROM WASTE FILMS

619 B.S.T., Hoshiarpur.—Desires to know a method of recovering silver from waste films.

To reclaim silver place the old films, plates, paper, etc., in a porcelain dish, so arranged that they will burn readily. To facilitate combustion, a little kerosene or denatured alcohol poured over the contents will be found serviceable.

Before blowing off the burnt paper, place the residue in an agateware dish, the bottom and heat it until the silver is separated as a pater and water. Place the whole on the fire, of which is covered with a solution of salt nitrate.

The solution being complete, add to the mass a little water and hydrochloric acid, when in a short time the serviceable silver chloride will be obtained. If the films should not give up their silver as freely as the plates, then add a little more hydrochloric acid or work them up separately. Silver reclaimed in this way is eminently suitable for silverplating all sorts of objects.

ENGRAVERS' VARNISHES

In copper-plate engraving the plate must be covered with a dark-coloured coating which, through entirely unaffected by the etching fluid, must be soft enough to allow the finest lines to be drawn with the needle and must also be susceptible of complete and easy removal when the etching is finished. Varnishes which possess these properties are called "etching grounds". They are made according to various formulas, but in all cases the principal ingredient is asphalt, of which only the best natural varieties are suitable for this purposes. Another common ingredient is beeswax, or tallow.

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Etching grounds are usually made in small quantities, at a single operation, by melting and stirring the solid ingredients together and allowing the mass to cool in thin sheets, which are then dissolved in oil of turpentine. The plate is coated uniformly with this varnish through which the engraver's tool readily penetrates, lying bare the metal beneath. After the lines drawn have been etched by immersing the plate in acid, the varnish is washed off with oil of turpentine.

The following formulas for etching grounds have been extensively used by engravers:—

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
	Parts	Parts	Parts	Parts
Yellow wax	50	30	110	40
Syrian asphalt	20	20	25	40
Rosin	—	—	—	20
Amber	—	—	20	—
Mastic	25	25	25	—
Tallow	—	—	—	2
Bergundy pitch	—	—	—	10

ALUMINIUM FLUORIDE

625 S.D., Calcutta.—Wants to know a process of preparing aluminium fluoride.

A solution of aluminium fluoride is most conveniently prepared by suspending 42 grms. of basic aluminium acetate and 54 grms. of alumina in about 100 c.c. of water and 66 grms. of 40 per cent. hydrofluoric acid. Solution occurs either at once or after boiling for a short time. The solution gradually deposit a gelatinous or colloidal hydrate of aluminium fluoride. The same dilute solution gradually deposits a crystalline crust of a similar composition.

AMMONIUM BICARBONATE

Ammonium bicarbonate may be prepared by treating an aqueous solution of the commercial carbonate with carbon dioxide gas. It is also obtained by adding alcohol to an aqueous solution of the commercial carbonate.

COFFEE TABLETS

650 M.S., Nagarett —Wishes to have a formula of making coffee tablets.

Take roasted coffee and grind it to coarse powder by means of a grinding machine. Then mix chicory powder in the proportion of 2 parts of chicory in every 8 parts of coffee or according to the taste of manufacturer. Then put the mixture in an automatic pressing machine and press into tablets. The size and shape of the

tablets vary with the manufacturer. Some tablet manufacturers do not add any binding material, but others add about 15 per cent glucose.

BRILLIANTINE

693 P.R., Calicut—Wants to have recipe brilliantine.

White soft paraffin	900	part
White ceresine	100	"
Bergamot	2	"
Ionone alpha	4	"
Violet absolute	1	part.
Helliotropin	2	part
Vetivert oil	1	part

Melt the soft paraffin and ceresine in water bath and incorporate the other ingredients one by one. Then remove from the bath of heat and run into pots.

INK TABLETS

740 G.U.C., G.T., Madras.—Wants to know recipes of ink tablets, candle making, etc.

In making ink tablets take the following composition in a mortar and moisten it with little water as possible. Do not add too much water which will take a long time to dry. Then put this moist lump over a tray and expose to dry in the sun for three or four days. When dry break the lump into coarse pieces so as to form granules like mustard. Then compress into tablets in a tablet making machine.

Methylene blue	8	oz
Methyl violet	2	"
Sugar powdered	2	"
Dextrin	1	"
Boric acid	2	d.

CANDLE MAKING

Hard paraffin	30	oz
Stearic acid	17½	"
Beeswax	2½	"

Melt together and stir until clear. If coloured candles are desired a pinch of a soluble dye is dissolved at this stage. Then put in vertical moulds in which wicks are hung.

PAPAIN

754 K.C.I., Khagaria.—Wants to know a good process of preparing papain.

The best method to prepare papain is to collect the juice of unripe papaw by making shallow longitudinal incisions about ¼ inch in the well grown fruits, by means of a metallic knife such as a bone or ebonite knife.

Fruits in which only three to four incisions are made simultaneously can be used again after a day or two. The juice resists a white thin sticky latex which coagulates rapidly.

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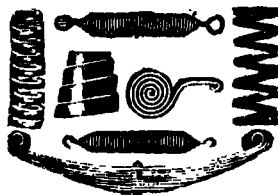
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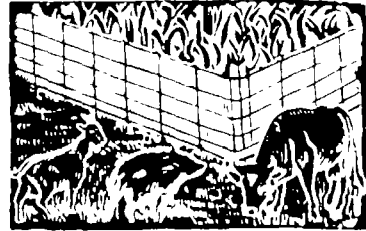
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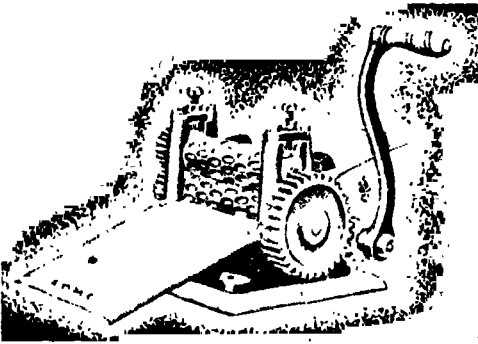
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A Monthly Magazine for Manufacturers and Businessmen.

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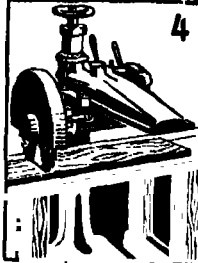
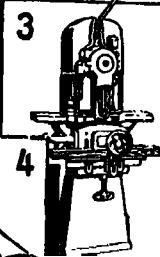
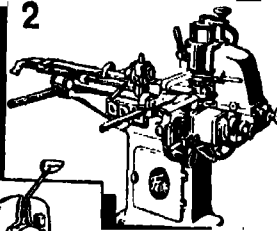
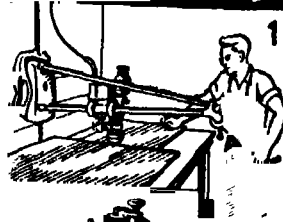
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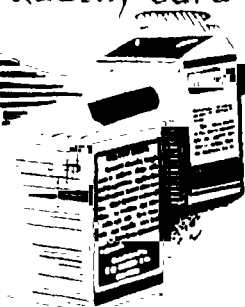
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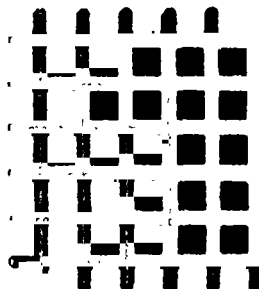
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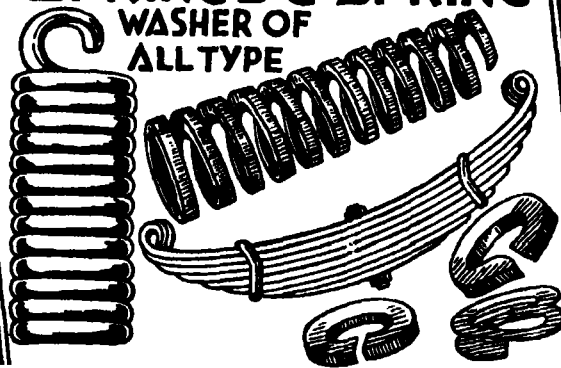
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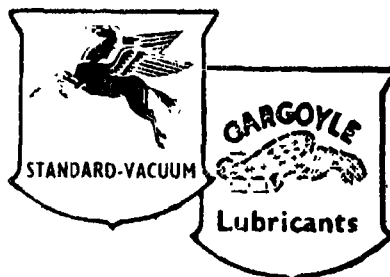
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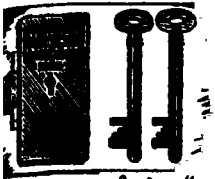
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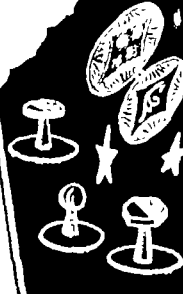
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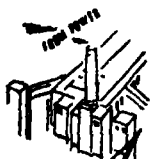
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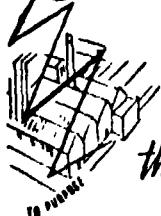


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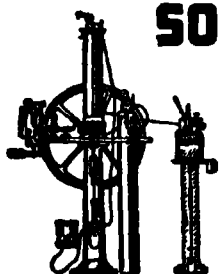


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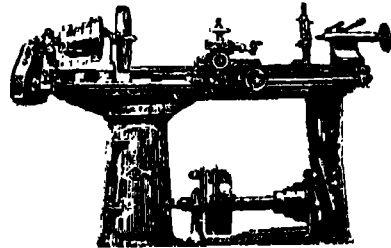
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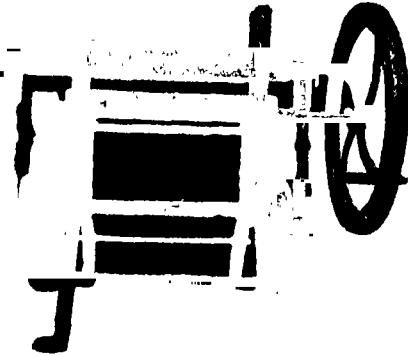
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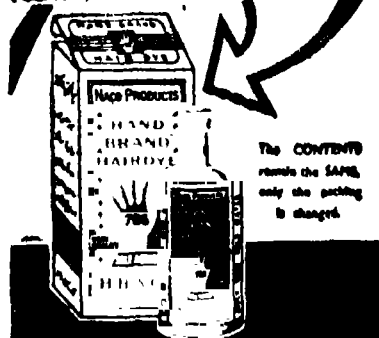
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STATE ENTERPRISE.

AS years roll on new and difficult responsibilities are being more and more thrust upon the Government, and in coming years Government's functions in the economic sphere are likely to expand. Besides the defence industries which must continue to be run as an integral part of the Governmental machinery on grounds of secrecy, the management of certain key industries which will serve as the starting point of very many small industries will have to be taken up by the Government.

But there is considerable misgiving about the prospects of State enterprise in the public mind. There are many responsible men who strongly believe that the State-managed concerns cannot function as efficiently and profitably as the private concerns. This is so because men who will be commissioned to run the State enterprise have worked all through their life in official capacity and cannot be expected to possess the keen business sense and quick judgment of an Indian merchant long in the business line.

In this event it is necessary to make a critical examination of the conditions which alone can make the State enterprises successful in the strictest sense of the term. This formed a subject of enquiry by Mr. A. D. Gorwalla who has recently submitted his Report to the Planning Commission.

Mr. Gorwalla in his Report admits that private enterprise has certain special advantages over public concerns but thinks that the handicaps to which State enterprise is subject to can be successfully surmounted in process of time by better recruitment, better training and better methods.

In his Report Mr. Gorwalla attempts to devise means for economy in production and quality control of the goods and services in respect of each and every unit under Government management. He lays great emphasis on the selection of proper personnel for the internal management of the unit. Over and above this, he says, modern technique must be adopted and new traditions built up which will combine the best in Governmental and private enterprise.

(Continued on page 206)

-CURRENT TOPICS

TEN-YEAR AGRICULTURAL PLAN

While the food position of the country since partition of India is causing a good deal of headache to the Government in power, our thoughts turn back to the big reports eulogising activities of the various Agricultural Departments and their achievements towards speeding up agricultural production. We have been told of the improved strains of rice and wheat evolved in the laboratory, that would solve the food problem. But as matters stand there is a wide gap between the laboratory and the field which should be bridged immediately for the benefit of the country. There is a growing consciousness on this point in Government circle. What is the need of evolving high-yielding and disease-resistant seeds, if the researches remain locked in office files. A ten year scheme is under contemplation that will altogether transform the agricultural economy of the country and will engender an enthusiasm among the peasant class for the introduction of better seeds and extension of cultivation. Concrete targets to be achieved for this programme of land transformation in the next ten years are:

Concentration of efforts on 48 million acres of irrigated land, reclamation of 10 million acres of land for new cultivation, provision of 60,000 stud bulls a year, organisation of Land Army in a lakh of villages and addition of 30 crore trees. In several states some villages have already been taking to collective village organisation. This passing enthusiasm should be harnessed into a disciplined and organised effort, if the scheme is to be put on a sound basis.

FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The draft outline of a five-year plan by the Planning Commission envisages an outlay of Rs. 1,793 crores on development programmes. The Plan is divided into two parts. The principal emphasis in the Plan is on agriculture and irrigation. This is explained by the serious view which the Commission takes of the country's food problem. If the per capita availability is to be raised to 14, 15 or 16 oz. per adult, the additional production required would be 8.2, 12 and 15.8 million tons, respectively. These figures indicate the

(Continued from page 205)

There is another outstanding point on which Mr. Gorwala lays special emphasis. He thinks that although the management of the State enterprise will be answerable to the Parliament and Ministry concerned, there should be machinery for allowing organisations to run without too much interference from those quarters. Mr. Gorwala suggests that the Parliament should be afforded every opportunity to discuss the working of the concerns when the annual accounts and reports are presented before the Parliament and that there should be checks in the shape of Consumer's Councils and Price Tribunals to enable judgment being passed on the success or failure of State enterprise. There should also be a proper system of cost accounts and of quality control and maintenance of commercial accounts which should be periodically audited by the Auditor General.

magnitude of the task that lies ahead and of the effort which is called for.

The first of the Five-Year Plan contemplates expenditure of Rs. 451 crores on irrigation and power schemes. The total cost of projects included in this part of the Plan is Rs. 729 crores of which Rs. 138 crores have already been spent. The projects are calculated to irrigate an additional area of 8.7 million acres by 1956 and to provide additional power amounting to 1.1 million kilowatts. This will increase the irrigated area of the country by 20 per cent. and the power potential by 70 per cent. over existing capacity. On completion, the projects are expected to irrigate an additional area of 16.5 million acres and to increase the power potential by nearly two million kilowatts.

The programme of irrigation and power development, the Commission suggests, has to be viewed in terms of a major long term objective. This should be over a period of 15 to 20 years to double the area under irrigation and to secure additional production of power amounting to 7 million kilowatts. It is by utilising available resources for irrigation and of power on this scale and by the adoption of intensive measures for improving the standard of agricultural production and the promotion of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries with the help of cheap electric power, that an appreciable rise in the standard of living can be achieved.

Reviewing the industrial development which has taken place in recent years, the Commission sets forth the following main aims for Five-Year Plan for industry: (1) Meeting the demands for industrial products on account of schemes for agricultural development and expansion of irrigation and power; (2) Fuller utilisation of existing capacity of producer goods industries like jute, and consumer goods industries like cotton, textiles, sugar and

soap; (3) Expanding the capacity of industries producing pig iron, steel, heavy chemicals, etc., which are of basic importance to the general economic development of the country; units on which a part of the capital expenditure has already been incurred; (4) Removing the lacunae and drawbacks in the existing industries.

A number of measures for the development of small-scale industries are suggested by the Commission, for instance, establishment of small-scale units at suitable locations for producing steel casting, evolution of small spinning machines for production of yarn and establishment of trading estates at selected centres where cheap power and transport facilities are available.

For the organisation of cottage industries, the Commission relies mainly on industrial co-operatives and on non-official organisations engaged in constructive work in the field of cottage industries to be developed. A programme for rural cottage industries has to aim primarily at assisting the artisan to remove the deficiencies, e.g. lack of organisation, local demand, efficient methods, material and finance and at additional measures such as appropriate stores purchase policies.

LIME-STONE DEPOSITS IN RAJASTHAN

Rich deposits of limestone, covering an area of nearly 25 square miles have been discovered at Chittore in Rajasthan. It is estimated that the quarries will yield sufficient quantities of limestone to enable the installation of a plant at the site for the production of 1,000 tons of portland cement a day. At present this limestone is being used for the manufacture of paving and flooring stones.

U. S. ECONOMIC AID TO INDIA

New details are now available of America's programme, of economic aid to

South-East Asian countries in the coming year. The programme, costing 80 million dollars, provides for assistance to India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Ceylon and Nepal in the following manner:—

India: Extension and improvement of agricultural production by the reclamation of unused land, by use of better seed, implements and farming techniques, building of fertilizer plants, and the sinking of tube-wells. American assistance in a fisheries project and geological survey work also was contemplated.

Pakistan: Improvement of agricultural techniques by the introduction of American extension method, improved implements and greater use of fertilizer. Assistance also was contemplated in reclaiming land, introducing modern road-building methods, opening new trade schools and in carrying out a geological survey.

Afghanistan: Assistance in supporting a number of economic development programmes already introduced by the Afghanistan Government, in distributing coal to the Kabul area.

Ceylon: Expert assistance in Ceylon's own programmes for agricultural extensions, water resources survey and the production of educational and training films.

Nepal: Technical advice for raising the low agricultural yield and to survey Nepal's mineral resources.

ROAD DEVELOPMENT IN WEST BENGAL

It appears the West Bengal Government has made good progress in road development within the past three years in face of grave difficulties. According to a representative of the Statesman (Calcutta) who had a talk with the Government official on this matter it appears that 1,500 miles of road are now under construction in the 14 districts of the State. Of the 19

bridges totalling 5,440 running feet, the construction of which was taken up since 1949, two have already been opened to traffic. They are over the Rambijhora in Darjeeling and the Jamuna at Gaighata (24-Parganas). A third bridge at S. mile on the Contai-Belda road in Midnapore district is nearing completion. The wells and piers of the remaining 16 bridges have been constructed; their superstructures are expected to be completed next winter and all these bridges will be opened to traffic by June 1952. Plans for the construction of eight other bridges are under consideration. The total estimated cost of the 5 year programme is Rs. 26 crores.

Some idea of the colossal amount of earthwork which has had to be done during the past three years may be had when it is realized that for one mile of road nearly 500,000 cub. ft. of earth are required. Another handicap in the way of road making is the non-availability, at economic rates, of stone in all parts of West Bengal. To meet the shortage, roads have had to be constructed by laying a double soling of bricks with a layer of jhama (broken hard burnt bricks) over which a stone metal coat is laid to a depth of 3" to 4" according to the importance of the road. Over this formation a bitumen carpet is laid or a 4" concrete pavement is constructed. This method gave rise to its own problem, namely, that of supplying bricks (roughly 600,000 to a mile). About 125 kilns were opened in several districts in 1949-50 and a similar number in 1950-51. The programme also included the provision of a large number of ferries and the improvement of existing ones at the numerous river crossings in the State where the erection of bridges would not prove economical. A considerable number of concrete culverts, small but nevertheless tedious in construction, had also to be built.

MATERIAL RESOURCES

1 view of the extreme shortage of materials all the world over, a Commonwealth Ministers Conference will be held in London late in September to discuss this problem. The meeting will consider the problems of production and supply of raw materials and of manufactured goods. Among the countries likely to be represented are Britain, Canada, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Southern Rhodesia. It appears that a suggestion has been made that a permanent organization on a ministerial level be set up to consider pooling and allocating strategic and scarce materials. India, Pakistan and Ceylon which are collectively the largest Commonwealth producers of raw materials—particularly rubber, jute, cotton, sisal, jute, wool and hides and skins—are in favour of the suggestion. They hold the view that in the interest of equitable trade and economic stability, the output of raw materials from their countries should be balanced by an inflow of capital goods from the more industrialized sister nations. It also appears, that the London Conference agenda will cover short-term as well as long-term supplies of raw materials, but is likely to provide additional opportunity for closer Commonwealth co-operation.

DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ELEMENT

The Planning Commission recently had consultation with the representatives of Agricultural Implements industry and ordered the future development of agricultural implements and machinery to suit growing needs of Indian agriculture.

It was early suggested that a survey should be undertaken to determine the types of implements suited to different

soil conditions in the country. The survey team should consist of an agronomist, a soil physicist and agricultural engineers and a representative of the agriculturists.

Regarding the present difficulty about the manufacture of adequate quantities of indigenous and improved types of machinery, a suggestion was made that some steel processing industries might jointly sponsor the setting up of a blast-furnance plant.

It was revealed at the meeting that there are at present 231 factories engaged in the manufacture of improved types of implements with a rated capacity of 40,000 to 50,000 tons of steel consumption on single shift working. There are also eight organized units engaged in the manufacture of power-driven pumps with an annual installed capacity of about 33,000 pumps of varying sizes, and five units engaged in the manufacture of diesel engines with a capacity of 5,300 engines of different horse-power. The number of power-driven pumps produced in 1950 amounted to 31,000 and that of diesel engines 4,600. In addition, certain firms imported agricultural tractors and implements while a few others manufactured tractor implements.

Statistics relating to imports of agricultural machinery and implements show that in the pre-war period, the average annual imports of agricultural machinery came to Rs. 100,00,000. After the war, there has been a steady increase in imports, amounting to Rs. 900.00,000 in 1948-49 and Rs. 16.5 crores in 1949-50.

Imports of diesel engines during 1949-50 formed 50 per cent of the value of total imports, while tractors and parts accounted for 31 per cent. It was estimated that during last year 4,000 to 5,000 tractors were imported and the demand was likely to increase from 10,000 to 15,000 tractors per annum during the next few years.

As for diesel engines, the requirements for irrigation purposes were estimated at 30,000 engines per annum, while the present capacity was stated to be 5,300 engines. In addition to plans for expansion of existing firms, four new firms have been allowed to set up plants for manufacturing diesel engines.

UTILISATION OF BAGASSE

Two important bye-products of the sugar industry are bagasse and molasses, which for the best interests of the industry require to be utilised properly. Chemically bagasse consists largely of cellulose and pentosans, both of which are elaborate compounds of sugars, and it is related to cereal straws, maize stalks, and other agricultural residues, industrially exploited in many countries. Bagasse itself is made into insulating material and hardboards for buildings in the U. K., the U. S. A. Hawaii, and Australia. In Barbados, it is mixed with lime and moulded into prefabricated "megacrete" units which are used for building house. Bagasse can also be utilised in the manufacture of cardboard and lining materials. These products make excellent packing containers and are in commercial production in America. And even paper of various types, can be made, both exclusively from bagasse and by mixing it with other pulps. Some promising small-scale results in this field were obtained in Formosa during the war years and, in 1950, the U. S. A. produced newspaper entirely from bagasse.

Further, its cellulose component, for instance, provides an "ennobled" substance, called alpha cellulose, which is the basic raw material of rayon, nitrocellulose, and if sufficiently pure, of cellulose acetate plastics. The sugar compounds of bagasse can be chemically split up to produce two "simple" sugars, dextrose.

and xylose. The former is easily fermentable to an alcohol, with numerous important industrial uses, while xylose can be converted into furfural, which can be utilised extensively in the production of oil, synthetic rubber, plastics, and nylon among others. One of the important uses of bagasse plastics, for which plants are being set up in the U.S.A., is in the manufacture of laminates—special products made of various materials bonded together by synthetic resins.

In this connection mention may be made of the fact that in the U.K., an important industry has been developed to ferment molasses, which is another bye-product of the sugar industry, into acetone and butanol. Other fermentation processes also give such useful chemicals as citric, lactic, and aconitic acids. The aconitic acids, a "possible starting material" for synthetic rubber and plastics manufacture, is present in sugarcane juice, and the economic processes for its recovery from molasses have been developed in the U.S.A. Edible yeast can also be produced directly from molasses. Molasses is also stated to have considerable nutritional value, as they are rich in iron and calcium, and can be easily made to prepare a wide range of "very attractive human foods."

TAMARIND SEED KERNEL FLOUR

Investigations carried out at the Indian Jute Mills Association Research Institute, Calcutta, have shown that tamarind seed kernel flour can be used with advantage for the sizing of jute yarn and fabrics in place of the usual starch sizing material. It is estimated that some 66,000 tons of this flour may be available and this quantity would be able to meet the total requirement of sizing material for jute and cotton industries. The studies show that the material is quite satisfactory for use in jute sizing.

—PROBLEMS IN STEEL ANALYSIS.

RECENT years have seen the solution to many of the difficulties encountered in the analysis of steel but a number of long-standing problems still exist. Some of the more important of these were described and the work being directed towards their solution outlined by Mr. B. Bagshawe, of the Brown-Firth Research Laboratories, Sheffield, are summarised in this article for the benefit of chemists engaged in steel factories.

A practical solution is still awaited to the problem of operating the combustion sulphur process on a stoichiometric basis. Such a solution would be a most important development, as other sulphur determination methods are open to question. Methods based on hydrogen sulphide evolution are becoming more restricted in scope and use. Serious discrepancies arise on certain types of alloy steel, for example, copper and molybdenum steels, and the yield is also affected to some extent by the nature of the sulphur constituents in the metal, and the conditions of heat treatment.

The classical barium sulphate gravimetric procedure is open to error; in very low sulphur ranges, for instance, recovery is almost invariably incomplete. Various devices have been used to encourage maximum recovery, such as addition of known amounts of standard sulphate solution, but these have not been entirely successful. The process also suffers from inconsistency of blank values, which are often of comparable magnitude, to the amounts of sulphur being determined.

COMBUSTION PROCESS BEST

When much chromium is present the barium sulphate process is practically useless, due to the formation of complex chromo-sulphuric ions which are not precipitated by the barium ion. Complexing of

the chromium with acetic acid or other complexing reagents may help in this direction. Oxidation of chromium to chromate will precipitate insoluble barium chromate.

The combustion process and its properly regulated operation is really the key to the solution. Its many attractive features include speed, convenience of manipulation, and above all, the fact that it may be applied to the widest range of steels and ferro-alloys. If only the problem of the yield factor could be solved, then there is no doubt that, as far as steel is concerned, all other methods would be abandoned forthwith.

In the most recent form of combustion apparatus soda asbestos is replaced by a silica gel dryer. A rubber suction ball is also incorporated to permit the absorbent to be drawn up the delivery tube for rinsing purposes, giving an increased titre of 0.2-0.3 ml. Other developments include the use of enclosed 'cartridge' type boats, which permit a more concentrated reaction with less slag spatter.

MODERN IMPROVEMENTS

Elimination of all filters and plugs of cotton wool, asbestos, or glass wool, and the simplification of the delivery part of the system are important recent trends. These modifications are possible, since the carry-over of ferric oxide dust can be prevented by presintering the sample before admitting oxygen.

Sintering for periods of two to five minutes is most effective, and the ferric oxide dust is retained in the hot combustion zone, where it is not likely to hold or fix sulphur. The deposition of iron oxide in colder parts of the system, as would otherwise occur, is likely to fix and retain

sulphur gases, and thus markedly affect the yield; this deposition is one of the causes of progressive yield drop during the life of a tube, the yield showing a maximum with a perfectly clean new system and slowly falling as the tube becomes fouled with slag and oxide adhesions.

Use of a refractory plug in the furnace is a great help in retaining ferric oxide dust in cast iron sulphur determinations. The combustion boat must be more than 1 in. from the plug, otherwise molten ferric oxide causes choking.

One of the probable causes of low sulphur recoveries is that some of the sulphur trioxide formed may pass through the absorption system as an unabsorbable mist.

Carbon determinations have not presented any real difficulties for some time as all general needs have been met by the dry combustion procedure. Modern developments in the production of super-pure iron and 4 per cent silicon iron, where carbon contents exceeding 0.01 per cent become of critical metallurgical importance, have served to emphasise the deficiencies of this conventional procedure for these specialised needs.

To a lesser extent this is also true of the Special Steel Industry where carbon specifications of 0.03 per cent (max.) are being laid down for certain classes of stainless iron and steel. As a result, carbon determinations expressed to the third and fourth decimal place are being demanded.

COMBUSTION PROCESS MODIFIED

An attempt has been made to meet the present urgency as far as low carbon stainless steel is involved, at the Brown-Firth Laboratories by developing a scaled-up version of the normal combustion process. Carbon combustions are at present being carried out on 16.362 g. of stainless steel, which amount is six times the normal factor weight of 2.727.

The conventional apparatus has a reproducibility level of about ± 0.01 per cent. For work in low ranges the process is too much affected by blank variation, and errors are incurred due to computing small weight differences from weighings of 100-120 g. mass, for example, absorption blank 100-120 g.

A large tube 30 in. long with an internal diameter of $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. and operating at $1,200^{\circ}\text{C}$. is used in the scaled-up combustion system. The boats are of large size ($4\frac{1}{2}$ in. by $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. by $5\frac{1}{8}$ in.) and accommodate the full charge of 16.362 g. of steel drillings or millings. The boats are pre-ignited at $1,200^{\circ}\text{C}$. before use, and give a residual blank of only 0.0004 g.

The absorption system includes an enlarged size Arnold bulb, containing chromic sulphuric acid to absorb sulphur gases, and the CO_2 absorption bulb of Madsen pattern is of specially small design, 4 in. \times $\frac{3}{4}$ in. so that its total weight when packed with soda asbestos is only about 30 g. Combustion under these conditions is steady and placid and the exothermic heat from such a large charge ensures the complete fluxing of the whole mixture. The flux is 7 g. of red lead, pre-ignited before use at 450°C .; after this treatment the residual blank does not exceed 0.0003 g.

Total blank in the process is only about 0.7 mg., and the carbon equivalent of this on a 6 x factor weight charge is only 0.0004 per cent. carbon. Reproducibility is thus maintained at ± 0.002 per cent. for routine operation of large batches.

Other possibilities for development include conductimetric measurements after absorption in barium hydroxide, and the development of radio frequency or induction combustion units.

For research purposes, determinations in the fourth place, for example ± 0.0001 per cent., can be obtained by refined methods of measurement, such as the k

pressure method in which the CO_2 evolved by combustion is trapped by freezing in liquid oxygen and then released in a vacuum system, where it is collected and evaluated manometrically.

Determination of carbon in steels by the copper-potassium chloride method, while not obsolete, is not entirely satisfactory, as recovery of both elements is incomplete. Again, the procedure of dissolving the steel sample in copper-potassium chloride solution is too time-consuming to be of use in routine steel analysis.

ESTIMATION OF TIN

The most common method for determining tin consists of reducing it in the steel solution either directly or after a separation as sulphide, the reduction being effected with a metallic reductant; the reduced tin is then titrated with standard ceric or iodate.

Metallic reductants for tin include antimony, aluminium, nickel, lead and iron, but the bone of contention at the present time is the relative merits of the antimony-aluminium and nickel reduction procedures. By antimony-aluminium reduction is meant reduction with aluminium metal in presence of a dissolved antimony salt. This is rather a different case from metallic antimony reduction which has been rejected by Evans and other workers.

Objection to antimony is that the reduction accuracy is a critical function of antimony particle size; a coarse antimony gives low results due to incomplete reduction, and a finely ground flour gives high results may be obtained at will, merely by altering the grading of the antimony flour, and correct results are mainly a matter of chance.

By using a combination of aluminium metal with an antimony salt in solution, metallic antimony is precipitated in solution in the form of a sponge of uniform charac-

teristics, and it is possible to control the reduction so that only a slight excess of antimony metal persists through the boiling interval for reduction.

Evans has reported that as much as 8.9 per cent. of the tin present may be lost in the antimony residues, although this is not the case for the very small amounts of tin involved in steel analysis; indeed, proved and tested methods have been put forward in turn for plain and low alloy steels, for highly alloyed steels and finally for ferrotungsten, by official *Bisra* committees, and approved by *Bsi*.

In spite of this, however, the antimony pro-nickel school has many adherents. The experience of the industry sub-committee, which carried out the tin investigations, was that nickel reduction (using an etched and activated spiral) was relatively slow, and that the reduction was often uncertain and incomplete if the spiral was not properly activated by etching in strong salt solution. Another point was that the green colour of the solution of dissolved nickel salts impaired the sensitivity of the end-point.

COBALT DETERMINATION

An improved method for determining substantial percentages of cobalt is required. The nitroso R salt absorptiometric procedure is easily the best available, but it is best adapted to a moderate range of cobalt content, and, in order to extend its use over the wider range required, semi-micro fractions must be used.

The classical gravimetric procedures are few in number, restricted in scope, tedious in operation and poor in performance. The *a*-nitroso-*B*-naphthol method, for example, is completely unselective. Residual unremoved iron and chromium, and also copper, are precipitated with the reagent. Finally, the cobalt residue is of uncertain composition, and the ignition

product, while weighed as Co_3O_4 , often contains CoO .

Precipitations as cobalt sulphide are not possible if nickel is present; again, the ignition product is of doubtful composition and may contain residual sulphur compounds, such as CoSO_4 .

Electrometric titration with potassium ferrocyanide in ammoniacal citrate medium is probably the best alternative to the nitroso R salt procedure. Some workers claim satisfactory results in the analysis of Kovartype materials (Ni, 30 per cent.; Co, 17-18 per cent.), although the process requires empirical calibration and for certain steels involves a rather doubtful manganese correction.

The dimethylglyoxime reaction, with or without cyanometric titration, meets most requirements for nickel determinations, but the most pressing need is for good separation from cobalt. Cobalt interferes in glyoxime precipitations, contaminates the precipitate and may cause partial suppression of precipitation; interference is controlled by oxidation with hydrogen peroxide to the cobaltic state, but this fails when the cobalt/nickel ratio is unfavourably high, with the result that determinations of small amounts of nickel in high cobalt steels are uncertain and unreliable.

With Kovar-type materials, the cobalt contamination problem is acute. X-ray examination shows that the precipitate consists of two phases—the nickel dimethylglyoxime complex and an iron-cobalt complex. This, however, only occurs when the iron is present in its higher valency state. A complete separation can be effected if the iron is first reduced to the ferrous state with sulphite.

Copper interferes to a lesser extent. Thus, large amounts cause partial inhibition of the nickel reaction, and large amounts of glyoxime reagent must be added, while contamination of the precipitate

with copper occurs at quite low concentrations, and this necessitates petitive treatments.

BORON DETERMINATION

Determination of traces of boron, example, 0.005 per cent., is one of the most difficult of analytical problems. A classical method, consisting of volatilization of boron with methyl alcohol and titration of the distillate with standard sodium hydroxide, is quite unsuitable for the small amounts added to steel.

Choice of methods is restricted to a very limited range of rather unsatisfactory colour reagents, such as quinalizarin (1: 2: 5: 8-tetrahydroxy-anthraquinone) and curcumin or turmeric.

Quinalizarin is of unstandard quality, and results can only be related to calibrations prepared for each bottle of reagent. The reagent must be prepared in strong sulphuric acid, 90/98 per cent. concentration, and variations of performance appear to be critically related to small variations of sulphuric acid concentration.

A pronounced purple colour is exhibited by the reagent solution itself, and the blue boron complex must be measured by comparing gradations of colour from the pale-purple of the reagent itself to the blue, which occurs at about 0.1 mg. boron per 100 ml. This is equivalent to 0.01 per cent. boron on a 1 g. steel base, and therefore all amounts below this must be measured by matching modifications of the purple reagent base colour.

CRITICAL CONTROL NECESSARY

Curcumin, the alternative reagent, develops a red colour with boron on evaporation to dryness to hydrochloric acid solutions after treatment with oxalic acid. The red colour is then extracted with alcohol and compared against a prepared standard series. Very critical control of reagent excess is necessary, as the red boron complex

x is modified by the orange yellow colour of the reagent itself.

There are also difficulties of application in both these reagents such as loss of volatile boron compounds during solution, difficulty of concentrating or evaporating solutions other than in alkaline medium, pick-up of boron from glassware, and so on.

Procedure based on that of Rudolf and Klinger is the simplest, and consists of digestion of the steel with sulphuric acid under reflux, after which the ferrous sulphate is salted out in 95 per cent. sulphuric acid and quinalizarin added to the concentrated extract. Alloy steels giving coloured solutions, for example, chromium steel, require a separation procedure, mercury cathode electrolysis affording a good separation from boron; separation of iron, cobalt, etc., from boron is also made with sodium hydroxide, and this is the operation which normally precedes the application of the curcumin reagent.

The usual gravimetric methods, based on hydrolytic precipitation as tungstic acid and ignition to the oxide are of doubtful accuracy for the determination of small amounts of tungsten in steel. Below about 0.2 per cent. recovery is usually extremely poor and amounts of the order 0.1 per cent. or less may escape notice entirely.

Various expedients have been tried in order to improve the yield, but without marked success, and it is noteworthy that most of these devices lead to increased precipitation of molybdenum. In the presence of molybdenum it is easier to adjust the conditions to provide a quantitative yield of tungsten.

Molybdenum contamination is influenced by a variety of factors, such as the concentration of the two elements in solution, the ratio of their respective concentrations, the acidity of the solution and

the use of organic precipitating or flocculating agents.

Conditions which favour a quantitative yield of tungstic acid also favour increased molybdenum contamination. Thus minimum acidity, sulphurous acid hydrolysis from a ferrous solution, cinchonine, rhodamine B, and so on, all improve the tungsten yield, but the residue is liable to contamination from molybdenum, particularly when large amounts of both elements are present.

On high tungsten/molybdenum steels the contamination is so serious that in applying the B. S. rhodamine B procedure to high speed steels (7 per cent W, 4 per cent Mo) 12-25 mg. of MoO_3 have been found in the WO_3 residues.

The ideal reagent for tungsten must, therefore, be not only more efficient than existing ones as a tungsten precipitant, but it must also be more selective. It must as well be capable of application under conditions which permit control of molybdenum coprecipitation, it must, for example, operate at a relatively high acidity 1-2N with respect to hydrochloric acid and be effective in an oxidised iron solution.

In the meantime, the existing procedures are reasonably satisfactory for medium and high tungsten content ranges, and in the absence of much molybdenum.

Apart from this, there is the dithiol absorptiometric procedure, which meets the most stringent accuracy requirements down to the lowest content levels, but is rather complicated in operation for regular use as a routine procedure on batch control.

TUNGSTEN DETERMINATION

Tungsten may be determined in the presence of columbium by the dithiol procedure, the columbium being separated by treatment with phosphoric and sulphuric acids.

Methods based on the tungsten-thiocyanate colour have also been used extensively in recent years. It is certain that

this reaction is critically affected by variation of conditions and the most exact and rigid standardisation is necessary. The most recent version of this method to be tested by the physico-chemical analysis subcommittee of *Bisra* as shown real promise; in this procedure the reaction is carried out in hydrochloric acid (1:1), and titanous chloride is used to reduce the thiocyanate complex. There is interference if much molybdenum, copper or vanadium are present.

Polarographic methods have not yet been developed for the determination of tungsten in steels. So far, only lead and copper have been determined in this way.

Molybdenum is still determined by the old caustic soda lead molybdate process and by the α -benzoin oxime precipitation method. The application of both these methods is becoming restricted by the interference of residual tungsten.

Residue treatment to remove co-precipitated tungsten is extremely difficult and it is therefore not surprising that steel chemists are turning to the thiocyanate absorptiometric process.

This method is dependent on a somewhat critical balance of reagent concentrations, and at very low molybdenum concentrations the bleaching of the corresponding ferric thiocyanate colour is erratic and incomplete. There is always a small residual ferric iron colour in the lowest ranges, and this accounts for the irregularity of the curve near the point of origin.

Determinations in the lower range are subject to iron blank values of comparable magnitude to the amount of molybdenum present, with the result that determinations in the region of 0.02 per cent or less are of low accuracy, and may be as much as 100 per cent in error. This residual iron blank can be reduced by increasing the stannous chloride concentrations.

INSOLUBILITY CAUSES INTERFERENCE

Interference from copper occurs, however, due to the insolubility of cuprous thiocyanate, and this becomes marked with increasing stannous chloride concentration. The problem, therefore, is to find the best compromise between reduction of iron blank and the incidence of copper interference.

Use of titanium salts is now being investigated by the Brown-Firth Laboratories. These salts appear to catalyse spontaneous and complete bleaching of ferric colour and permit the most favourable balance of stannous chloride and thiocyanate concentrations to be used.

Mercury cathode electrolysis is now applied to steel solutions for a variety of purposes, but its full exploitation still lies in the future. Present work in the Brown-Firth Laboratories is being directed towards the development of an apparatus capable of removing as much as 10 g iron chromium, nickel, etc., in a matter of one to two hours. Several difficulties have been encountered particularly with chromium-rich solutions, but a point has been reached where satisfactory conditions can be specified for steels soluble in sulphuric acid solution.

SOME FURTHER PROBLEMS

Further problems include the treatment of carbide residues from alloy steels, the application of solvents other than sulphuric acid; particular difficulties arise in oxidised ferric solutions. If these problems can be solved a field of great scope will be opened up, particularly in the determination of residual and trace amount elements such as aluminium, titanium, zirconium, vanadium, calcium, etc.

As regards the determination of aluminium in steel, the aluminium may be determined by precipitation as the phosphate after mercury cathode electrolysis. The procedures of Gentry and Sherring

(1946, 1950) using a 1 g. sample have, however, given satisfactory results. Here aluminium oxinate is formed, extracted with chloroform, and the absorption of the extracted solution measured. The aurine tetracarboxylic acid procedure is unsatisfactory.

In miscellaneous determinations it must be emphasised that considerable segregation of lead often occurs in steels. Hence, lead should always be estimated on at least 10 g. samples, though some workers continue to use 1 g. samples. The folly of this latter procedure may best be illustrated by a recent case where a bar of steel of about 1 in cross section and 1 ft. in length gave on analysis no lead reaction at one end and 0.25 per cent of lead at the other. Steels made by the Ledloy process, however, are less likely to suffer from segregation.

The most satisfactory method for the determination of oxygen in steels is that based on vacuum fusion. Methods based on aluminium reduction either in hydrogen or in vacuo are not very popular, as the blanks often give trouble.

For phosphorus the Vaughan procedure is unsatisfactory, due among other things to the fact that losses are incurred by spitting of the solution being evaporated. In batch analysis of phosphorus it is quicker to titrate the phosphomolybdate precipitate with caustic alkali than to measure the absorption of the molybdenum blue formed on subsequent reduction.

The phosphomolybdylvanadate method of Harrison (1933), who determined phosphorus in cast iron, is sensitive to interferences in solution and to temperature effects. Again, it is less sensitive than the molybdenum blue procedure.

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—COATING OF TABLETS.

TABLETS are generally given a coating of a particular kind for a number of reasons. Tablets containing such unpleasant drugs as quinine or cascara sagrada are more palatable when sugar-coated, therefore sugar coating is applied to this type of tablets for this reason. Another purpose of coating is to improve the appearance of a mottled tablet; the mottled unavoidable and due to ingredients in the recipe. Some tablets are liable to deteriorate in stock through absorbing moisture. Deterioration can also take place through chemical reaction due to absorption of moisture. In this case a sugar coating will act as a protective shell. Many tablets have to withstand a tropical climate; sugar coating would not be serviceable under these conditions, therefore a gelatine coating is advisable.

COATING EQUIPMENTS

In coating tablets the following plants and accessories are required:—

The number of coating pans necessary will depend on the output required. The usual size of pan is 30 inches in diameter. A pan of this size will hold approximately 35 lbs. of 3 grain uncoated tablets. This batch when coating is finished should weigh approximately 70 lbs. Coating pans may be made of galvanised iron, copper or stainless steel.

In addition to coating pans, one polishing pan is also required. This pan may be made of galvanised iron. It is advisable to keep a separate polishing pan for white tablets if various coloured tablets are to be polished.

For sugar coating a syrup is used, and sufficient should be made up to coat the batch in hand. A container to hold ten gallons of B. P. Syrup (i.e. 2 parts Sugar, 1 part Water) would suffice for the coating

of the 70 lbs. of tablets in two pans, the approximate finished weight of the batch being 150 lbs. Stainless steel is the most suitable metal for the container as it does not corrode and it is easier to clean.

The most convenient way of applying the syrup coatings is by means of a stainless steel ladle holding about four fluid ounces. It is easy to manipulate and allows the solution to be distributed evenly over the tablets as they are rolling.

A glass stirring rod will also be required to keep coloured syrups intimately mixed before applying to the tablets.

A pair of dispensing scales kept handy will enable the coater to check the progress of his work. A few tablets weighed from each pan will reveal whether the respective pans are giving an equal performance.

A small container with a perforated top is also required for applying dusting powder to the tablets.

METHODS OF HEATING

In coating tablets it is necessary to dry thoroughly each coating before giving a further application of coating solution. Heat is usually employed, and the method of heating can be by gas, electricity or steam. The heat is transmitted to the pans by hot air.

A fan blower provides the air current. The air is preheated and blown through the pipes directly into the pans. The pipes should be fitted with a fine mesh gauze near the fan, to prevent foreign matter entering. The hot air can be regulated by control slides which are fitted into the piping. With steam heating the coating pans can be heated direct by steam coils. The coils are arranged around the outside of the pan, keeping a constant supply of heat to the body of the pan which automatically dries the coatings as

they are applied. Steam heating is useful for quick drying of tablets which readily absorb moisture, but for general coating purposes a hot air blower is preferable.

After coating the tablets with syrup, dusting powder is sprayed over the tablets to prevent the tablets from sticking one another. In many cases the addition of dusting powder is continued upto approximately one-third of the total coating. This shortens coating time by giving a quick build-up to the tablet. A good dusting powder for this purpose can be made from:—

Starch	6 lbs.
Talc	1 lb.
Powdered gum acacia	2 oz.
Mix and sift through a fine cloth.	

COATING PROCESS

Sugar coating is probably the simplest type of coating to process. After an initial batch has been coated and the difficulties discovered and remedied, a formula can be worked out for future batches.

To illustrate the coating process assume the following to be the formula selected (3-grain tablets to be coated to 6-gr.):—

Tablets	35 lbs.
Dusting powder	4 .. (approx.)
B. P. Syrup consisting of 25 lbs. Crystal sugar (approx.) and 12 lbs. water.	

It should be noted that tablets for coating are usually more compressed with what are known as "sugar coating punches" (or s/c in short), these having a deeper concavity than standard concave punches.

To start operations, switch on the fan, also the heat. Set the pans revolving and the tablets will commence to roll. Now

make the first application of syrup. A batch of 35 lbs. of tablets will take approximately 3 fl. ozs. to moisten. After the syrup-application (which should have been well distributed over the batch) sprinkle some of the Dusting Powder. A few ounces of Dusting Powder should be applied at the moment the tablets commence to fall away but are still "tacky." When applying the Dusting Powder shut off the air temporarily until the powder is absorbed, and then the vent can be opened again. Heat should be moderate, and the air supply likewise, until the tablets are dry. A full draught of warm air can then be applied to ensure the tablets being thoroughly dried before the next application of Syrup. The Syrup and Dusting Powder applications continue in this manner. A 35 lbs. batch of 3-grain tablets will require a total of about 4 lbs. of Dusting Powder. When this amount of Dusting Powder is applied the rest of the coating can be continued with warm Syrup alone. At this stage tablets will have an uneven appearance owing to the Dusting Powder having built up on the surface. The continuance of Syrup coatings will smooth the tablets cut providing they are applied gradually and the Syrup is not allowed to get too warm. A good tip for this smoothing out process is to apply the Syrup, shut off the air, and let the tablets roll as long as possible without air. They will roll in the pan in a syrupy mass and gradually fall away. When the tablets have separated, apply the air and finish off the drying. Occasionally bits will form in the pan. These are small grains of sugar which are gradually building up. The tablets should be taken out and sifted before the small pieces increase in quantity. If these small granules are allowed to roll in the pan, they will eventually adhere to the tablets and be covered over as the Syrup is applied. They will form unsightly bulges on the surface of the tablets.

The coating should be continued until the tablets weigh approximately 6 grains. At this stage they should be smooth and have a hard surface suitable for polishing. To guarantee a hard coated finish, run the pan on cold air and give the tablets one or two coatings of cold syrup. Allow the tablets to roll until dry—but not longer as a powdery will show up and this is detrimental to polishing.

It is advisable to spread the tablets on suitable trays overnight, and leave in a closed cupboard, polishing them the next day.

POLISHING

The polishing can be carried out in the polishing pan which has been previously coated with a thin layer of Paraffin Wax. The polishing pan will fit on the same stand as the coating pan, or a pan complete with stand and motor can be carried out in about twenty minutes. It is only necessary to let the tablets roll in the pan and they will take on a thin film of wax through constant friction as the pan revolves. If a high polish is required a sprinkling of dissolved Bees-Wax in Ether will give the desired effect. Time taken for the total process will depend on the adaptability of the operator. Naturally, with experience he will improve his speed and technique.

The process outlined above is merely basic. In many cases experienced coaters use Dusting Powder almost to the end and then finish off with cold Syrup, but they have the skill and knowledge to control the process. They know how and when to apply the Dusting Powder, also the quantity to use. They also know when to apply heat and when not to do it.

There are certain tablets which must not come into contact with moisture owing to the nature of the ingredients. Any absorption of moisture from the Syrup in this case would be fatal, as the coating

of varnish to the tablets first. Give them a thin protective shell and then the coating can proceed. A good varnish for this purpose can be made up from Gum Sandarac and Spirit. Tablets such as Cascara Tablets should be given a good sub-coating to prevent dark patches appearing on the coating.

COLOUR AND CHOCOLATE COATING

The basic formula for sugar coating applies to coloured coated tablets, and tablets which are chocolate coated. The only variance is that with the former the Syrup is tinted with the desired colour. The latter has a proportion of Chocolate Powder mixed with the Dusting Powder which is used in combination with the Syrup. The Syrup should be suitable coloured with Chocolate Brown Paste. Coloured Syrups are best applied in the following manner: a light shade first, and subsequent applications of slightly darker tint, until the desired shade is reached. By this method an even result will be obtained.

GELATINE SUB-COATING

Hygroscopic ingredients can cause endless trouble if the initial stage of coating is not thoroughly carried out. A good sub-coating with Gelatine Solution and Dusting Powder will suffice to counteract any troubles from this source.

The Gelatine Solution can be made up from one part Gelatine, 12 parts Sugar, 10 parts Water. This mixture should be warmed and stirred until thoroughly dissolved. Use sufficient to moisten slightly and continue to apply until a thin protective shell is formed around the tablet. Always apply warm as there will be tendency to gelatinise if the solution is allowed to cool. If this solution does happen to gelatinise through being left standing, it will revert to solution again on re-heating.

—Substitution of Coconut Oil in Soap.

in the manufacture of high grade soaps and it usually forms 25-30 per cent of the total fat used. The soap is easily soluble in water, giving profuse lather and possessing excellent washing and detergent properties. As there is a shortage of edible fats in this country at present, there is an imperative need for substituting coconut oil by other fatty materials in the soap and hair oil industries.

It is for this purpose Messrs S. C. Gupta; J. S. Phadnis and J. S. Aggarwal of the National Chemical Laboratory, Poona, have investigated to find out the best substitute of coconut oil and published the following article in the *Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research* for the benefit of the soap-makers.

The excellent properties of coconut oil soap are mainly due to the presence of lauric and myristic acids as major components of the total fatty acids of coconut oil. The effect of alkyl chain length on the properties of soap such as Herbig number, time of sinking and drop number has been investigated by Shirolkar and Venkataratnam. Of the various saturated fatty acid soaps, sodium and potassium myristates have been found to possess the maximum wetting action, foaming and detergent properties at ordinary temperatures. As edible oils with myristic acid as a major component are not available in sufficient amounts in India, attention has been directed in the investigation of lauric acid-rich oils. Seeds of *Actinodaphne hookeri*, *Actinodaphne angustifolia*, *cinnamomum amphora*, *Laurus nobilis*, *Litsea chinensis*, *Alstonia Setafera*, *Litsea citrata*, and *Litsea ceylanica* are available in Indian forests and their fats have been found by Puntambekar; Puntambekar and Krishan; and Collins to contain 43 to 96 per cent lauric

acid. In the present investigation the seed fat of *Actinodaphne hookeri* locally known as Pisa fat, is used in place of coconut oil in soap. Its fatty acid consists of 96 per cent lauric acid. Castor oil and groundnut oil mixtures along with Pisa fat have also been tried.

Hydrogenated rosin is a valuable ingredient of soap preparations. Its sodium derivative has been recommended as a substitute for coconut oil in soap. The sodium salt of rosin was used in admixture with other sodium soaps to ascertain whether it can replace coconut oil in soap manufacture. Lather value, hardness, wetting and detergent tests were carried out on each sample of soap. Soaps thus prepared were found to be comparable to the usual tallow-coconut oil soaps in many applications.

EXPERIMENTAL

In order to obtain alkali-free neutral soaps the oils and fats used in this investigation were first hydrolysed to fatty acids and neutralised by the addition of requisite amounts of a strong solution of caustic soda. The reaction was completed by heating on a water bath for 1 hour. The sodium soap so formed was dried in the sun to a moisture content of about 10 per cent. Hydrogenated rosin was similarly treated. The soap was then milled in a three-roll mill and the moisture content was finally adjusted to 10-12 per cent as determined by the xylol method. Forty grams. of this material was moulded to a cylindrical cake of 1½" diameter by pressing for 5 minutes under a pressure of about 250 lbs per sq. inch at a temperature of 40°C+50°C. The cakes were aged for a week in closed glass vessels. The following determinations were made:—

1. LATHER VALUE. —The lather value was determined by shaking 50 c.c. of 0.2

per cent soap solution in one litre stoppered graduated cylinder for 30 sec. and noting the volume of the lather produced after 5 minutes. The stability of the lather was found out by noting the volume again after 24 hours. The values were determined at room temperature (25° to 30°C.).

2. WETTING TEST. — The concentration of soap required for causing the sinking of a 5 grms. of skein of grey cotton yarn in 25 c.c. at 40° was determined by Drave's method.

3. HARDNESS. — The comparative hardness of different samples of soap was determined by determining the weight (in pound) required to pierce through and break the cake. A bronze, hemisphere, 2 cm. diameter was employed for this purpose. A cement testing machine was suitably modified for carrying out this test.

4. DETERGENCY TEST — A piece long cloth was first boiled in sodium carbonate solution, thoroughly washed with water and dried. It was soiled in petrol to which carbon black (1 per cent.) and groundnut oil (2 per cent) were added. The cloth was dried in the sun by spreading horizontally on a frame. Test-piece $5'' \times 5''$ having an even shade was chosen. The test piece was shaken in 100 c.c. 0.3 per cent soap solution, for half an hour with distilled water. The test piece was then dried in shade and the extent of soil removed was examined visually. The above test was done in duplicate with each sample of the soap. The composition of various soap samples together with the lather value, wetting test value and hardness are given in the following Table. The detergent qualities of all the samples were found to be almost identical.

COMPOSITION AND PROPERTIES OF VARIOUS SAMPLES OF SOAP

Acid Composition of Soap.	Lather Value		Drave's Wetting test values (Soap concentration required for 25 Sec. wetting time),	
	5 min c. c.	24 hr. c. c.	Gm./litre.	Hardness lb.
1. Tallow 75 p. c. + coconut oil 25 p. c.	230	195	0.56	58
2. Tallow 75 p. c. + pisa fat 25 p. c.	250	210	0.72	68
3. Tallow 75 p. c. + pisa fat 15 p. c. + stearic acid 10 p. c.	200	160	0.88	64
4. Tallow 65 p. c. + pisa fat 25 p. c. + castor oil 10 p. c.	300	265	0.55	50
5. Tallow 65 p. c. + pisa fat 25 p. c. + groundnut oil 10 p. c.	280	230	0.57	60
6. Tallow 60 p. c. + castor oil 20 p. c. + groundnut oil 20 p. c.	280	240	0.49	48
7. Tallow 75 p. c. + rosin 25 p. c.	210	170	0.56	85
8. Tallow 75 p. c. + hyd. rosin 25 p. c.	240	200	0.67	91
9. Tallow 65 p. c. + Pisa fat 25 p. c. + Rosin 10 p. c.	240	200	0.52	61
10. Tallow 65 p. c. + pisa fat 25 p. c. + hyd. rosin 10 p. c.	280	240	0.56	76
11. Tallow 60 p. c. + groundnut oil 15 p. c. + hyd. Rosin 25 p. c.	270	200	0.56	60
12. Hyd groundnut oil 75 p. c. + pisa fat 25 p. c.	290	Thinned	0.57	58

DISCUSSION

From the data given in the above table it will be seen that substitution of lauric acid rich in Pisa fat for coconut oil has increased the lather value in samples 1, 4 and 5. Less lather has been obtained in sample 3 due to the partial substitution of a longer chain stearic acid in place of lauric fat. Again, substitution of 10 per cent Castor oil and groundnut oil in samples 4 and 5 for the same amount of tallow (sample 2) has resulted in a marked increase in the lather value. Drave's wetting test values for these two soaps are also been quite low and are quite close to that of coconut oil soap. They were also found to be less hard than others because castor and ground oils are known to give softer soaps than oils containing predominantly saturated acids. The effect of the soap from these two oils is very clearly indicated by the results of the values of sample 6 containing tallow 60 per cent, castor oil 20 per cent and groundnut oil 20 per cent. This soap has given lather value higher and wetting test value lower than coconut oil soap (Sample I) although the hardness has been slightly more than the latter.

Hydrogenated rosin soap has given a quite good lather value (samples 8 and 10) and has proved better in comparison with ordinary rosin soap (samples 7 and 9). It also retards spotting in soap on storage which usually takes place when ordinary rosin is used. But a combination of lauric oil soap along with that by hydrogenated oil has definite advantages. Substitution of Pisa fat (lauric acid) by groundnut oil and hydrogenated rosin (sample II), however, lessens the stability of the lather of the soap.

An attempt was also made to substitute tallow by hydrogenated groundnut oil (1. V. 20-22). Although a good amount of lather was obtained, it was very thin and subsided within 24 hours. This may be due to the conversion of oleic acid mostly to stearic acid and partly to iso-oleic acid during hydrogenation. The soaps of these two acids have less solubility and wetting action at low temperature (25°-30° C). Other soaps (Nos. 2 to 10) have given lathers of nearly equal stability and are almost identical to coconut oil soap.

The hardness of all the samples of soaps with the exception of No. 6 have been found to more than that of coconut oil soap (No. 1). This may be due to the presence of 15-20 per cent copric and other lower acids present in coconut oil. The existence of these acids in coconut oil is definitely a disadvantage because their sodium salts have very poor lather values and wetting action. However, they are very soluble in water and are removed during the salting out stage. But these acids have not been removed in the present work and were allowed to form a part of the soap. The differences in hardness may not be regarded as a great drawback because by proper formulation of the oils and fats, it may be adjusted to the desired limit. Samples 4, 5, 6 and 10 are quite satisfactory as substitutes for standard coconut oil soap.

CONCLUSION

From the above experiments it may be concluded that coconut oil can be substituted in soaps by suitable mixtures of lauric acid-rich fats, castor oil, groundnut oil and hydrogenated rosin.

NECESSITY OF ELECTRICITY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF METALLIFEROUS MINES IN INDIA.

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METALS form one of the earth's most important resources in the support and enrichment of human life. With the progress of civilisation consumption of metals has steadily increased in all free countries. Hence in Free India the need for more metals should naturally be realised in view of rising living standards as well as increasing population. Everywhere there should be a sustained drive to bring into use mineral resources as yet untapped, to build up with the revenues obtained from this source more productive and diversified economies.

For the necessary development of metalliferous mines in India cheap electrical energy is of fundamental importance specially in those areas where coal is not locally available. For example it may be noted that in Mysore State the Kolar Gold Field could be developed to great depths of about 10,000 feet by the utilisation of the hydro-electric power of the Cauvery Falls since 1903. Annual consumption of power in Kolar Gold Mines has now exceeded 100,000,000 K. W. Hours. Some time back for the Lead-Zinc-Silver Mines of Burma Corporation Ltd. Hydro-electric power was obtained from the neighbouring Mansam Falls where several turbines were installed with an aggregate capacity of more than 10,00 K.W. For the development of Rand Gold Mines in South Africa as early as 1906 the most important power supply system originated with the idea of developing the water-power of the Victoria Falls. The present capacity of the power

stations for Rand Mines is more than 200,000 K. V. A. which was the figure when I visited that country nearly a decade ago. The hydro-electric development also progressed in Canada.

As compared to the figures stated above the aggregate horse power of electrical plant used in the coal mines in India increased from 122,833 in 1945 to 131,801 in 1946, and in metalliferous mines the respective figures were only 8,568 in 1945 and 10,439 in 1946 as published in the Annual Reports of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India excluding the States.

Since the separation of Burma it has become necessary to develop the Lead-Zinc-Silver Deposits in India, for which I have personally examined the workings for proving such deposits in Rajasthan State. As a result of intensive investigation during the last war valuable deposits have been located at a place known as Zawar about 29 miles from Udaipur. There in Mochia Magra Hill it was estimated recently to have more than 1,37,000 tons of ore containing at least 20% Lead and 7% Zinc with some Silver. Besides this hill there are at least thirty other hills in the same area where ancients had extensively worked for such values. Coal and other fuels are not available locally and not far from this area I have seen excellent sites for large reservoirs of water which in my opinion can be harnessed for irrigation of the land and generating necessary power economically for the rapid development of these and other valuable

metalliferous deposits for the amelioration of the condition of the people as well as for their protection.

Incidentally these large reservoirs of water in this State will change the face of the Earth to the satisfaction of all and revive the past glories though one may not easily believe such a possibility at the present time when the hills in this area appear to be so barren and are so close to the famous deserts of Rajputana. But when one finds more than million tons of slag heaps in an area which is far away from coalfields one naturally concludes that the ancients must have consumed the local timbers for the mining and smelting of these ores. Without foresight the consumption of timber might have been so ruthlessly carried out in those early times when the land was in the height of its glory that the area became deforested and the climate was so affected thereby that the region appears be arid at present. So I hope the land will be smiling again in the near future by the successful planning and development by modern scientific methods along with the destiny of Free India.

I received the inspiration for this paper while I was reading the paper entitled "Metals in Relation to Living Standards" by Dr. D. N. Wadia, Director, Bureau of Mines, Government of India, and have quoted the very first sentence therefrom.

To support my concluding remarks as stated above I quote the following in detail from the book entitled "Man and Metals" by T. A. Rickard. Page 779. "In process of time the demand for fuel caused the destruction of the woodlands to such an extent that many regions became deforested, and the climate was changed thereby. For example, the smelting of silver-lead ore at the mines of Laurium contributed to the denudation of Attica. Plato, in the Critias dialogue, tells us that in the old days there was an abundance of forest on the moun-

tains. "Of this last", he says, 'the traces still remain, for there are some of the mountains which now only afford sustenance, to bees. whereas not long ago there were still remaining roofs cut from the trees growing there, which were of a size sufficient to cover the largest houses; and there were many other high trees, bearing fruit, and abundance of food for cattle. Moreover the land enjoyed rain from heaven year by year, not, as now, losing the water which flows off the earth into the sea, but, having an abundance in all places, and receiving and treasuring up in the close clay soil the water which drained from the heights, and letting this off into the hollows, providing everywhere abundant streams of fountains and rivers; and this proves the truth of what I am saying. "Attica, once well clothed with leafy verdure, has become an arid region. Cyprus has suffered likewise; once reputed the most fruitful island in the Mediterranean, it was stripped of its woods when it fell into the hands of the Turks, the consequence, being a diminution of rainfall, the drying of watercourses, the formation of swamps on the seashore, and the prevalence of a deadly form of malaria. Other examples might be cited. The tumbled hills of the Sierra Morena, in southern Spain, where once great forests stood, are today bare, in mute testimony to the destructive activity of the miner, successively Iberian, Carthaginian, and Roman, who despoiled the woods for the charcoal needed to smelt the silver, lead, and copper ores of this rich mineral region. The modern mining districts of Colorado and Montana, all of which were started amid pine forests, are today bleak and bare, only the stumps of trees remaining to remind the newcomer of the days when the prospector found shelter under the spreading boughs. The effects of deforestation have been studied scientifically; it has been ascertained that the forest is a regulator of climate, because it decreases extremes of temperature in the

vicinity; the forest is cooler and more humid than the level country, it stores the snow and rain, retarding the melting of the one and conserving the other in its leafy soil, thereby enabling the accumulation of water to feed the springs that flow gently into the plain when required for cultivation. The coolness and moisture of the forest promote the condensation of the lower layer of clouds; the differences of temperature between forest and plain cause a healthful circulation of the air, the woods serve to check the destructive effect of violent winds. Deforestation therefore diminishes the rainfall, increases the evaporation, causes extremes of temperature, and facilitates the destructive action of torrents, avalanches, and landslips. Such disastrous effects have ensued in many regions on account of the consumption of wood as fuel on the hearth and as charcoal in metallurgic furnaces. During later days the lavish use of timber in mines has caused the hillsides to be

denuded of their growth, as most of our western American mining district show.

A typical example of deforestation is to be seen on the eastern slope of Sierra Nevada, overlooking the Trucee Valley where the cutting of trees to provide timber for the deep mines of Comstock left the hillsides exposed to erosion so that today they are bleak, barren, and hideous. Most of the old mining regions tell the same tale, from Linares to Leadville, from Potosi to Porcupine".

In conclusion I may state that in India today we have a large number of metalliferous mines which are only at the initial stage of development. With the supply of electricity they will surely be in a position to step up their production of ores and completed the smelting thereof in order to cope with the steeply rising demands of metals for the amelioration of the condition of the people in Free India and their protection.

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—ENAMELLING GOLD AND SILVER

THE idea of enamelling (in the jeweller's sense and not as understood by the printer or cycle maker whose enamel is something different) is said to have arisen from observation of the effect when early metalworkers, spilling hot metal on sand (which is silica and one of the constituents of glass), noticed how the amalgamated mass exhibited colour. In course of time the colours arising from one metal and another composed quite a new range.

When in a molten state, glass absorbs particles from metals with which it may happen to be in contact, and by them it becomes coloured. Cobalt, for instance, gives glass a fine blue colour, chromium imparts a green. There, in few words is the clue to that delightful art of enamelling which gives us one of the most charming results in the whole of jewellery technique.

Here are some colours and the minerals responsible for enamelling gold and silver articles:

Ruby red—.01 per cent gold chloride.

Yellow—.015 per cent uranate of soda.

Aquamarine—3 per cent bichromate of potash.

Emerald—10 per cent nitrate of copper.

Bottle Green—10 per cent oxide of iron.

Blue—2 per cent black oxide of cobalt.

Purple—15 per cent permanganate of potash.

All these make clear transparent enamels; and if opaque enamel is wanted various oxides, like oxide of tin, are used to make a basic whitish composition, which can then be tinted like the transparent kind. The glass used, in crushed form, is flint, which has 25 to 40 per cent of lead oxide in it and is to that degree more fusible and more refractive (i.e.,

more sparkle). The metallic constituent is likewise crushed in a mortar to powder and mixed with the powdered glass. It is laid into place on the silver surface of the object to be enamelled, the whole is placed in an oven, in the heat of which the powdered layer fuses into a glass-like covering. It will not be perfectly smooth, but is gone over with carborundum stone and water, after which two further coats of enamel may follow. To get final smoothness, the article is held against the revolving felt mop of a polishing spindle charged with pumice.

The final coat of clear transparent enamel used on high grade work makes for a longer life, and consists of best transparent glass enamel ground up and melted in the furnace.

Now to answer the question of the young lady as to whether enamelled goods were washable; the answer is: Yes. Naturally one would not drop an enamelled vanity or toilet mirror into hot water, but the limits of treatment enamel will stand are such as could be expected from an article coated, you now realise, with a thin film of glass. As such it cannot be harmed by a gentle wiping.

Enamelled cigarette cases, vanities, brooches and wherever touches of enamel are incorporated in jewellery, as on earrings, rings, necklace beads, pendants, etc., all are coloured in this way; in the case of the larger articles the silver ground has often been given added interest by an engine-turned decorative surface, which sparkles through the enamel and gives a pretty effect that few ladies can resist.

The process named is a modification of (1) the *basse-taille* (Fr., low, to cut)

system, one of the five traditional methods of enamelling; in this the surface is recessed to receive the enamel. Of the remaining processes, the second and the third have a slightly different method of creating these recesses (not necessarily deep) to keep the flowing enamel under control; in (2) you can have wire soldered down on to the surface so as to determine limits to which the enamel must keep. This is rather on the stained-glass window principle in which lines of lead define the main drawing of the subject, and each department contains one colour, as it does also on the enamelled object. Based on the French word for divisions (*cloisons*), this is called Cloisonne Enamel. In it the gold or silver dividing wire will always be clearly visible.

(3) The third system arrives at the compartments by a different way. The silver being fairly thick in the first place, you gouge out the required recesses with a graving tool, leaving a line of the original silver standing between each division. In effect, you "draw" by leaving untouched the original surface, just as a wood engraver cuts his printing block. This is called the *Champlevé* (Fr., ground removed) process.

(4) In the fourth method a dainty but most fragile stained glass effect in miniature is secured by having no support at all for the enamel and letting it be seen by transmitted light. This sounds almost impossible, until you learn that the enamel was, in the first place, laid on a temporary ground, the different colours separated as before by wires. Afterwards, under the influence of heat, the enamel springs off

the ground and so becomes separated from it. In another method the retaining wires are bedded slightly into plaster and the enamel laid in the various compartments so formed, the whole being then fired.

(5) When the fashion is inspired that way, you will find the young ladies in the enamelling workshop painting birds and beasts, also flowers and, in fact, any pictorial subject from Windsor Castle to a Titian-haired beauty walking by the sea shore. If their skill can cope with subjects like this they ought to be called artists, and what they are doing follows the fifth enamelling process, the Limoges or Painted Enamel tradition.

Ground enamel is laid down, following in colour the pictorial design, but taking care that the colours do not mingle. After fusing by heat and stoning smooth it may be that further colours need superimposing on those already there, as for example, a second colour pattern on a dress. In this case it is a matter of going carefully to work so that later fusings of colour do not spoil the colour already set.

Enamelling is done on gold as well as on silver, and the effect of the gold undertone, as on brooches, lockets, etc., is worth observing as giving more mellowness to the enamel. Gold intended for enamelling has a large proportion of silver in it, making a paler metal. But, as showing what a critical operation enamelling can be, the presence of more silver so lowers the melting point of the gold that when the article is in the furnace care has to be used not to melt the gold itself whilst fusing the enamels.

—Printing Artificial Silk with Phosphorescent

Effect.

CERTAIN amount of progress has recently been made in obtaining phosphorescent or faintly luminous effects on artificial silk fabrics. In the printed articles so far produced, phosphorescence results principally through the use of colours and products which absorb the rays of light during the day or through artificial light, and transmute them in the dark or in reduced light.

Slightly luminous designs have a faint glow in accordance with the colours used and show up better in pale coloured patterns, yellows, oranges, blues and greens, than in reds, greys, black or dark colours. Besides this, they are usually more marked or visible on bright or dull grounds, and on white grounds rather than on black or dark ones. Further, with certain types of fabrics the colours are clearer and more visible; success depending to some extent on the fabric being a flat smooth surface, and the absence of strong or pronounced changes between the projecting portions of the designs, where the phosphorescence would remain either partially or totally hidden. They can also be used for producing lustreless patterns on bright grounds. In all cases the fabrics treated with a special attraction of their own and the patterns show up very prominently.

Before the application of the phosphorescent material a base of white or grey could be applied this has the purpose of intensifying the effect of the luminous colour by reason of the reflection into the fabric, and also to a certain extent smoothing out the surface of decoration.

The phosphorescence produced in the printed effects can be white, and can issue

from white or otherwise coloured lustreless designs or parts of designs on white lustreless rayon cloth. If it is in bright canary yellow it can be brought out from less bright yellow or red patterns; if bright greenish yellow from yellow patterns; if yellowish green from blue or grey patterns; if orange yellow from yellow patterns; if orange red from orange patterns; if neutral orange from medium orange or yellow patterns; if green from medium brown, slightly greenish grey and violet patterns; if blue from very light brown patterns, if violet from very light brown and light pea green patterns. A large number of varieties between the colour of pattern from which it is developed can be made very pronounced by adding aluminium bronze and zapon colours to the phosphorescent zinc sulphur colours.

Although progress has been made in the production of the above phosphorescent effects and designs on rayon cloth so that articles can now be launched on the market, the still undeveloped technique, the limitations of processing, and the few products at present at the disposal, restrict the field of exploitation. The number of applications, however, are quite sufficient to permit enterprising opening manufacturers who are in search of opening to work with every chance of success. There is little doubt that when scientists and technicians have given the matter greater attention and study, many improvements will be made, thus increasing the value, number and variety of goods produced, and in certain cases achieving permanent or persistent luminous patterns.

APPLICATION OF PHOSPHORESCENT PRINTED GOODS

Properly prepared phosphorescent

effects and designs on artificial silk fabrics not only permit the manufacture of women's and girls' clothing in an entirely new fashion, but they are also of special interest for other purposes. Rayon viscose cloth, having prints with a sufficient degree of phosphorescence can certainly be used with advantage for evening wear, in social gatherings, in festivities, etc.

Further attractions may be obtained by the printer supplying fabrics having phosphorescent designs of different nature across the width, which produce stripes that can be easily cut out of the pieces whenever required for making frocks. In other cases, articles having regular phosphorescent patterns running down the whole of the rayon viscose pieces may be required. These are specially applicable for the manufacture of loose-hanging frocks used without waisted effects or with a few folds as possible, as with this arrangement the luminous appearance of the pattern can be shown to its greatest advantage. Amongst the other applications of phosphorescent effects and designs there is the production of special varieties of curtain fabrics, furnishings, handkerchiefs, etc. It is easy to imagine, for instance, the advantage of curtains which show luminous designs during partial or complete darkness.

PRINTING PASTES

The printer has not yet at his disposal proper means for producing designs with very fine or delicate luminous details as the processes so far introduced render the production of these designs difficult or uneconomical. Designs without fine detail work can be obtained however, which are both attractive and interesting.

A three-colour article yields on bright viscose rayon material patterns of very satisfactory appearance and high phosphorescent properties, when exposed conveniently to light, is obtained with the following three phosphorescence produc-

ing pastes which also furnish an interesting scarlet red, blue, and yellow pattern when the respective yellow, yellow green and orange phosphorescences are not developed.

SCARLET RED

Fast zapon scarlet C.G.	0.5	parts
Nitro-cellulose varnish	649.5	"
Zinc sulphide		
(luminous)	250	"
Tricresyl phosphate	100	"

First dissolve the scarlet in the nitro-cellulose varnish (called *kasara varnish*) and then incorporate the other ingredients in the order given.

BLUE

Fast zapon blue C.G.	1.5	parts
Nitro-cellulose varnish	648.5	"
Zinc sulphide		
(luminous)	250	"
Tricresyl phosphate	400	"
Mix as before.		

YELLOW

Fast zapon yellow C.G.	4	parts
Nitro-cellulose varnish	649	"
Zinc sulphide		
(luminous)	250	"
Tricresyl phosphate	100	"

The above phosphorescent colour are to be printed in the same way as bright varnishes; that is, the printing pastes are applied to the cloth, across the perforations of stencil plates, by the use of wooden knives. The stencil plates should have a thickness from 0.2 to 0.3 centimeters. The printing colours are in the case very dense so that they can not travel along or through the cloth. They react therefore only superficially acid over the front. They can be diluted when necessary with butyl acetate.

The application of the printing paste across the stencil plate must be conducted slowly to avoid the formation of air bubbles.

Besides this it is advisable to leave stencil plates on the material from five to ten seconds after the application of the printing colours. Designs are formed in this way, and the effects show up very distinctly. The printed patterns, prepared as above, generally dry sufficiently after a few minutes. For complete drying the cloths require to be hung for a few days in the night or day.

The phosphorescent colours must not be ground more finely than the form in which they are supplied by the producers, for the best phosphorescence depends on the size of the granules of a certain size. After some time, the phosphorescence in the dark is slowly reduced, gradually fading altogether from half an hour to several days. After a short exposure to day light, or artificial light of sufficient strength, the phosphorescence returns to its full strength. It is necessary therefore to re-expose the design from time to time with light.

PROGRESS IN THE PRODUCTION OF PHOSPHORESCENT COLOURS

Certain progress has been made in the production of phosphorescent colours. The light producing effect is somewhat due to the presence of mixtures of different parts of pure calcined zinc sulphide with a small part of copper sulphide. The copper is generally added in the form of copper sulphate to a solution of sulphate of zinc of convenient strength and subjected to the action of sulphuretted hydrogen. The mixture of zinc and copper sulphide obtained in this way is calcined

for some hours at 1000°C. The resulting very fine white crystalline powder is dotted with good photo-luminescence. The sensibility of sulphide of zinc to radio active rays is particularly important and it has been proved that light development of phosphorescent colours is nearly exclusively effected by these rays. Regarding phosphorescence, the reduced purity of the sulphide of zinc is not of decisive importance, as products of satisfactory activity can be obtained with sulphide of zinc relatively rich in heavy metals besides copper. Of course, the percentage of these metals must not exceed a certain limit otherwise phosphorescence is no longer obtained. Sometimes the activation of zinc sulphide is conducted by impregnating in a solution of radio active substances and drying at 100°C.

One may also obtain a sulphide of zinc that is triboluminescent, i.e., becomes luminous through pressure, by impregnating 20 parts of the products with 15 parts of a 4 per cent solution of manganese, drying and calcining for two hours at 900°C. There are also phosphorescent colours prepared with boric acid. Phosphorescent colours can be rendered luminous through addition of radio active substances. Generally these colours are incorporated in a fixing or binding agent. Those with sulphide of zinc can be fixed through a solution of gum arabic, although this reduces the phosphorescence power. Gum arabic is therefore seldom used. Phosphorescent printing inks are produced by using linseed oil as fixing medium.

-DENTAL WAXI

DENTISTS and dental laboratories use quantities of various wax compounds as: base-plate wax, inlay-casting wax, impression wax compound, set-up-wax, bite wax, sticky wax and carving wax. In the hands of the dentist and of the technician, the dental waxes have to work and serve as ideal plastic materials. They must have high plasticity at normal temperatures, tensile strength, fusibility, hardness, adhesiveness and non-crystallinity. For instance, the requirements for base-plate wax include plasticity, fusibility, hardness, and light colour. Inlay-casting wax must soften without becoming flaky. It must not show appreciable chipping or flaking when trimmed to a fine margin, at room temperature. It should become very plastic when heated and harden very quickly when cooled. The melted wax, when vaporized at 500°C., must have no solid residue other than carbon. It must have a certain thermal expansion and flow.

Carving wax should be hard, of very fine grain, and easy to carve. Sticky wax must have good adhesion but should not stick to fingers.

The following formulas are representative of these compounds:—

BASE-PLATE WAX

I

Paraffin Wax	70 parts.
Beeswax	20 "
Carnauba Wax**	4 "
Gum Dammer	6 "

II

Paraffin Wax	80 parts.
Acrawax C	5 "
Rosin	5 "

INLAY WAX

Paraffin Wax	18.0 parts.
Carnauba Wax **	3.5 "

Resin *	2.5 p
Candelilla Wax	1.0

STICKY WAX

Flexowax C	11 p
Beeswax	11
Ozokerite	13
Venice Turpentine	2

CARVING WAX

Paraffin Wax	30 p
Ozokerite	30
Montan Wax	20
Carnauba Wax **	20

* The resin may be a phenol resin or a petroleum resin.

** Carnauba wax can be replaced by the synthetic wax Acrawax C.

In all these formulas the resin waxes are being replaced more and more by synthetic products, because the synthetic materials are free from impurities, well-defined, and often cheaper than natural products.

METHOD OF PRODUCING BASE-PLATE WAX

The resin, which must be very hard, is melted; then the waxes are added and heated till homogeneous. The hot mixture is filtered through a fabric and cooled. An oil-soluble dyestuff, previously dissolved in a part of the paraffin, is added, for coloration and the mixture is stirred till completely uniform, cooled again, and poured in flat pans. After a few days, the cakes are heated in water and milled on a two-roll mill, the rolls having the same speed and made of granite or stainless steel. On cooling in cold water, the milled sheets of wax are stamped.

-PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPES

EASTON'S SYRUP

Iron	8.6	grms.
Phosphoric acid	40	c. c.
Strychnine hydrochloride	0.3	grms.
Quinine sulphate	14.8	"
Simple syrup	560	c. c.
Glycerin	140	"
Distilled water to produce	1000	"

Dilute the phosphoric acid with 80 c.c. of distilled water; add it to the iron contained in a flask of suitable size, and heat on a water-bath, until the iron is dissolved. Add the solution to the strychnine hydrochloride and the quinine sulphate previously triturated with 9 c.c. of distilled water. When solution is complete make up to 250 c.c. with distilled water, filter it into the syrup and glycerine, previously mixed and pass sufficient distilled water, through the filter to produce the required volume.

SYRUP FERRI IODIDE

Iron, wire, cut into small pieces	12.5	grms.
Iodine	41.5	"
Diluted hypophosphorous acid	20.0	c. c.
Sugar	575.0	grms.
Distilled water	q. s.	

Introduce the iron and iodine into a flask of thin glass and add to it 150 c.c. of distilled water. Shake the mixture occasionally, checking the reaction by placing the flask in cold water, and when the solution has acquired a greenish colour and has lost the odour of iodine, heat it to boiling; and add at once 50 grams. of the sugar. When this has dissolved, filter the solution into the remainder of the sugar contained in a porcelain dish. Rinse the flask and iron wire with 125 c.c. of distilled water and pass the washings through the filter into the sugar. Stir the mixture with a glass rod, heating the liquid on a water bath until complete solution is effected and having passed the syrup through a clean muslin strainer into a tared bottle, add the diluted hypophosphorous acid and sufficient distilled water to make the product weigh 100 grams.

CORN SALVE

Salicylic acid	6	dr
Methyl salicylate	2	"
Wool fat	2	"
Yellow wax	2	"
Lard (benzoated)	11	"

Mix all the ingredients thoroughly in a mortar.

ULCER OINTMENT

Oil of eucalyptus	14	parts.
Colophony	20	"
Soft paraffin	55	"
Hard paraffin	11	"
Green colouring matter—trace.		

Mix thoroughly in a porcelain mortar and put in printed tin boxes. This preparation will not only be efficacious to ulcers but also to all skin diseases, cuts, bruises, eczema, etc.

BRAHMI OIL

In preparing this medicated oil, sesame oil is generally used. This oil, before being boiled with medicinal substances is first of all heated to deprive it of any water by evaporation. It is then purified by steeping in it the following substances for 24 hours viz., madder 1, 16 part in weight of oil, turmeric, wood of symphoric racemosa, tubets of cyperus rotundus, a bark called abaka, the three myrobalsans, root of pavonia colorata and the tender shoots of pandanus odoratissimus, each one sixty fourth part in weight of the oil. These ingredients in the powder should be soaked in the oil, with the addition of an equal quantity of water for a day. The mixture should be boiled till the water is evaporated, and finally strained through clean cloth. To the oil thus prepared dried brahmi herb is added in the proportion of 4 parts of the herb to 16 parts of oil. The mixture is then boiled till the watery parts of all evaporated. This is then allowed to cool and strained.

DIGESTIVE POWDER

Chacbuli myrobalsan	1	part.
Embuli myrobalsan	1	"
Ajwan	1	"
Aniseed	1	"
Ginger	1	"
Rock salt	1	"
Common salt	1	"
Mix in the powder.		
Dose: 1 to 2 teaspoonfuls after food.		

UNIVERSAL LINIMENT

Oil sassafras	1	dr.	10	drops.
Oil camphor	2½	oz.		
Oil of thyme	3	dr.	20	drops.
Methyl salicylate	100	mins.		
Oil terebinth	10	oz.		

Mix and add colouring matter, if required. This is a good pain-relieving liniment.

BISMUTHATED MAGNESIA

Bismuth carbonate	1	oz.
Sodium bicarbonate	5	"
Magnesium carbonate heavy	6	"
Simple syrup	a sufficiency.	

Mix to a slightly damp powder, pass through a 20 hole sieve, dry, and compress into 15 grains tablets.

—Recipes for Small Manufacturers

ICE CREAM POWDER

Powdered starch	1 oz.
Powdered sugar	1 "
Orange dye, sufficiently to tint.	
Essence of almond	10 mins.
Essence of vanilla	10 "

Mix. This quantity is sufficient for a pint milk, with which it is to be mixed, then brought to the boil, when cold put in the freezer.

CRYSTALLISED COCONUT CHIPS

Prepare the coconut kernel by passing off a brown skin. Cut them in thin slices and pack them in a crystallising tin. Now make ample syrup enough to cover them. Pour this in syrup over them while hot and stand aside 12 hours, then drain off the superfluous syrup removing the stopper from the tin. Spread the chips on trays and put them in the drying oven for 2 or 3 days turning them over at intervals. When dry put them again into the tin; boil a like quantity of syrup as before and let it stand till nearly cold; then pour it over the chips and let remain undisturbed for other 12 hours; then strain again and spread them on trays when dry, they are ready for sale. This, of course, will be white. To make the chips red simply colour the syrup which used for crystallising.

COLOURING PHOTOGRAPHIC PRINT

Colour finishes of wide variety can easily be applied to any photo without toning powders or other chemicals. Take photographic or other transparent oil colour and thin it with turpentine to such a consistency that a wad of cotton will readily absorb it. Be sure to use thin but turpentine for the thinner. Squeeze out the surplus colour and rub the cotton wad over the print, first lengthwise and then crosswise, rubbing the colour into it until the surface is dry.

ARTIFICIAL TEETH

The following is one of the processes adopted for the manufacture of artificial teeth. Pure quartz is calcined by a moderate heat. When taken from the fire it is thrown into cold water, which breaks it into pieces, which are then ground into fine powder. Next fluorspar, free from all impurities, is ground up in like manner into a fine powder.

The next step is to mix together nearly equal parts, by weight of the powdered spar and quartz. This mixture is again ground to a greater fineness. Oxide of tin is now added to for the purpose of producing an appropriate colour and water and china clay to make it plastic and give it consistency. This mixture resembles soft paste and is moulded into proper shape. After this, two small platina rivets are inserted near the base of the tooth, for the purpose

of fastening it to a plate in the mouth. They are now transferred to a furnace, where they are "cured," as it is technically called, that is, half-baked or hardened. The teeth are now ready to receive enamel consisting of ground spar and quartz made into soft paste with water, which is evenly spread over the half-baked body of the tooth, by means of a delicate brush. The teeth must be next subjected to an intense heat. They are now put into ovens, lined with platina and heated by furnace, in which the necessary heat is obtained. When properly baked, they are removed from the oven and allowed to cool.

PLAYING CARD VARNISH

Gum elemi	56 lbs.
Methylated spirit	4 gals.

Dissolve. This is a colourless varnish especially suitable for playing cards. You must not add any other ingredients; if you desire to make a pale varnish for your purpose then proceed as follows:—

Powdered pale manilla copal	28 lbs.
Powdered rosin	56 "
Methylated spirit	12 gals.

BRILLIANTINE POMADE

Soft paraffin	940 parts
Beeswax	60 "
Patchouli oil	1 part.
Vetivert oil	1 "
Ethyl cinnamate	1 "
Benzyl cinnamate	1 "
Bergamot oil	5 parts.
Rose oil	3 "
Balsam of peru	4 "
Musk ketone	4 "

Melt the paraffin and beeswax over water bath and add the other ingredients. Then put in wide mouthed bottles.

ICED TEA

1. Prepare brew of hot tea in a teapot in the usual way, using 3 ounces of tea to one gallon of boiling water. If possible use a teapot with a removable infuser and withdraw after 6 minutes, failing this, strain the brewed tea into another pre-heated teapot.

2. Prepare a sugar syrup by dissolving granulated sugar in boiling water using approximately 2 pints to 1 lb. of sugar.

3. Fill a glass to the brim with small chipped ice.

4. Pour hot tea over the ice until glass is almost full.

5. Add sugar syrup.

6. Just prior to serving add a wedge of lemon and a prig of mint.

7. Serve with sundae spoon and straws.

—IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENT TUNER

An electronic apparatus to assist in the rapid and accurate tuning of pianos and certain other musical instruments has been developed. A gas discharge lamp is arranged to flash in accordance with sound reaching a microphone, and light from this lamp is used to illuminate 12 rotating discs. Each disc carries seven stroboscopic rings of black and white segments, arranged so that each ring has twice as many segments as the preceding one. The twelve discs respond to each chromatic note in the seven octaves marked on each disc, i.e., there is a total of 84 notes covered.

NEW FUMIGANT KILLS FRUIT FLIES WITHOUT DAMAGE TO COMMODITY

U. S. Agricultural scientists have developed a chemical that will kill destructive fruit and vegetable flies and still not damage the commodity. The chemical is called ethylene dibromide and is used as a fumigant on perishable foods to destroy the Oriental fruit fly, the melon fly, and the Mediterranean fruit fly. Fruits and vegetables sent from Hawaii to the United States must be certified before shipment. Thus the commodities have to be fumigated with chemicals that will not damage perishable items. Scientists working at the Hawaiian Agricultural Experiment Station in co-operation with researchers in California found that fruits and vegetables are more tolerant to ethylene dibromide fumigation than to any other treatment tested. The chemical is applied to the commodities at the rate of 1 pound per 2,000 cubic feet of space over a two-hour period at 70 degrees Fahrenheit. The treatment is for use on peaches, bell peppers, melons, bananas, cucumbers, papayas, pine apples, string beans, and squashes.

VIBRATING TABLE.

Containers of all shapes, sizes and materials can be effectively vibrated with the Kolt Vibrating Table.

The table is of all-steel construction. The table top is securely bolted to moulded rubber mountings which isolate it from the base. Vibration is not transmitted to the feet of the machine. An unbalanced weight rotated by a small electric motor causes the vibration. This motor is secured to the table top by special mountings to eliminate "contact rattle". The surface of the table is slightly dished to prevent containers sliding off, and is covered with felt to eliminate noise.

HOT AIR OVEN

A new type of hot air oven, designed by Ectricals, Ltd., has just been announced. Difficulty in the past has existed in obtaining

very close temperature control but it is claimed that this oven, by reason of its design and construction, virtually eliminates this trouble.

Temperature range of the oven is up to 300°C. and it can be used for any temperature within these limits. Internal measurements are 17 ins. cube.

A thermostat control gives the desired temperature at all parts of the oven to within 1/4 per cent with shelves loaded, although the limits are finer than this for any one point. This very close temperature control is obtained by special features, the principles of these being a hot surrounding the interior of the oven, in which the air is circulated by a fan. An additional fan agitates the air in the oven interior. The heat insulation is such that the exterior of the oven remains cool at all times.

Due to the unique air bath principle used, it is possible to avoid switching the whole bank of heating elements on and off through the thermostat circuit, a system which invariably gives rise to great fluctuations in the oven itself. The small wattage controlled by the thermostat plus the extra elements controlled by a 5 position rotary switch when required to attain high temperature, provides very small temperature fluctuations.

A warning light to indicate failure of the fan, and a pilot light on the thermostat, are fitted on the control panel.

The oven is useful for all laboratory purposes and is ideal, by virtue of its temperature control, for the sterilization of syringes, etc. at 155°C.

OIL FOR EGG PRESERVATION

A method of improving egg preservation by oil dipping designed to maintain the general quality of shell eggs is now being applied. Tests carried out with a special grade of oil supplied shell have shown that the treatment with oil of new laid eggs before cold storage maintains their taste and quality for as long as seven months. When an egg is thus treated the pores of the shell are filled with oil, loss of moisture and carbon dioxide is lessened and it becomes difficult for microbes to invade the interior.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

PRESSURISED FIRE EXTINGUISHER

A pressurised extinguisher designed to smother dangerous fires in metals has been developed by the Ausub Chemical Co. of Portnetti, Wisconsin. The extinguisher expels a dry powder known as met-X which forms a crust over the metal. It is claimed to be moisture-proof, non-toxic, non-corrosive and non-abrasive. The device is reported to have been effective against fires in magnesium, sodium, potassium, zinc, and powdered aluminium.

—CHEMICAL AGE.

—FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

DHUP

786 H.H.S.C., Choharpur—Wishes to have formulas of dhup, tooth powder, etc.

In the manufacture of incense sticks, woods and spices are reduced to fine powder. The required amount of these powders are weighed out first and mixed. The mixture is then made into a thick paste with mucilage of gum acacia or gum tragacanth. The sticks are of bamboo splinters dipped in nitre solution and dried. These splinters are next vertically sunk into the fumigating paste taken in a wide-mouthed glass cylinder and withdrawn slowly. Observe that the coating is uniform. If not dip it again into the paste. Dry the stick vertically. Lastly pack.

Aguru 1 ch.; sandal dust 1 ch.; gugul 1 ch.; cassia leaves 1 tola, deodar wood 1 tola; jatanansi 1 tola; costus root $\frac{1}{2}$ ch.; vetiver root 1 ch.; white dammar 2 ch.; nagarmoth 1 tola; ugar cane molasses 1 tola. Mix these ingredients together; add 4 pieces of lakhi and soak or 3 days. Then grind well into paste and make into incense sticks.

TOOTH POWDER

Precipitated chalk	35 parts.
Magnesium carbonate	25 "
Borax	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Sodium bicarbonate	14 "
Soap, powdered	4 "
Sugar, powdered	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Methyl salicylate	$\frac{1}{2}$ part.
Menthol	1/10 "
Cinnamon oil	1/5 "

Dissolve the menthol in the methyl salicylate, add the cinnamon oil and then add to borax and mix with sugar. Add to the other ingredients; mix and sift.

IMITATION TABASHEER

553 P.H.M., Calcutta—Wishes to know a process of preparing Imitation Tabasheer.

Tabasheer occurs at the nodes of bamboo and consists largely of hydrated silica. As tabasheer is mainly a silica it may be prepared by decomposing silicon tetrachloride with water or an alkali silicate with acid. When concentrated hydrochloric acid is added to a solution of soluble glass, gelatinous silica separates. The mass is carefully evaporated and dried, and the silica is thereby rendered insoluble by a process of polymerisation which accompanies dehydration. The residue is then digested with dilute hydrochloric acid to dissolve oxide of iron and other impurity, as well as sodium chloride, and finally washed with water, dried and ignited.

TAILOR'S CHALK

638 K.N.B., Krishnagar—Wishes to have recipes of tailor's chalk.

WHITE

French chalk	20 parts.
Pipe clay	20 "
White curd soap	6 "
Water, to suit.	

Make into a stiff paste with sufficient water. From this form slabs of desired size and press into the oiled wooden or metal moulds. After moulding dry the pieces in a moderately heated place.

YELLOW

Chalk powder	28 parts.
Soapstone	18 "
Pipe clay	10 "
Yellow Ochre	7 "
Lemon Chrome Yellow	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Water, to suit.	
Proceed as above.	

BLUE

Chalk	20 parts.
Pipe clay	20 "
Soapstone	15 "
Ultramarine blue	10 "
Water, to suit.	
Proceed as above.	

BLACK

Soapstone	56 parts.
Bone black	8 "
Yellow soap	6 "
Gum arabic	2 "
Glycerin	1 part.

Dissolve the gum in a small quantity of water, add glycerin, mix in pigments. Then grind to a smooth paste with water and proceed as above.

LANTERN SLIDE INK

An ink consisting of 3 p.c. solution of celluloid in "Cellosolve" or other similar solvent and coloured sufficiently with crystal violet, or other dye, will write on clean glass, using an ordinary steel pen. Slides can be very easily prepared. It is necessary that the glass be unusually clean and free from any oil film. The dry glass, after washing with soap and water, should be sponged with acetone, and the surface must not be touched with the hand during the writing. The handle of a tooth-brush is a satisfactory source of celluloid. The ink dries rapidly and corrections can be easily made after erasing by scraping with a razor blade.

BONDED ABRASIVE WHEELS

The use of a good grade of animal bone glue is essential. Bone glue, fish glue, and cold glue preparations are relatively insufficient.

Mix by weight only and never heat more than a three hours' supply at any time. For average conditions in the polishing room the

Following table of mixtures should act as a guide for setting up wheels.

Size of grain	% Glue.	% Water.
24-26	50	50
46-54	45	55
60-70	40	60
80-90	35	65
100-120	33	67
150-180	30	70
220-240	25	75

Soaking the glue allows it to dissolve more fully on heating. Use pure water and alk.

Ground glue -- One hour or more.
Flake glue -- Six hours or more.
Cake glue -- Twelve hours or more.

The glue should be melted in a water-jacketed heater. When the wheels and grain are preheated, apply the glue at a temperature of 140°F. With wheels and grain at room temperature, use glue at 160°F. Keep a thermometer in the glue pot as a constant check on temperature.

BLUEING IRON ARTICLES

884 S., Lucknow -Wants to have a recipe blueing iron articles.

Caustic soda	36 oz.
Litharge	7 "
Sodium Cyanide	2 "
Lead Acetate	2 "
Metol	1 "
Water	50 "

Mix all together. Heat the solution to 134°C. Immerse the iron article into this solution for 2-4 minutes. Then take it out.

GREEN MARKING INK.

Silver nitrate	11 parts.
Ammonia solution	22 "
Sodium carbonate	22 "
Water	12 "
Gum	50 "
Sap green	2 "

Dissolve the silver nitrate and the ammonia and the sodium carbonate in the water separately. Boil the latter and pour the silver solution into it. Then add the gum and colour with the sap green.

EFFECTIVE LICE KILLER

Benzyl benzoate	250 c. c.
Triethanolamine	5 gm.
Oleic acid	20 "
Water	750 c. c.
To make about	1000 "

Mix the triethanolamine with the oleic acid, add the benzyl benzoate and mix well. Transfer the mixture to a suitable container of about 1000 c.c. capacity, add 250 c.c. of water and shake thoroughly. Finally, add the remainder of the water and shake thoroughly.

This lotion is applied to affected areas and allowed to dry. It is removed after several

hours by washing thoroughly with a mild soap and water. It should not be allowed to get into the eyes, open cuts or wounds. After its use, comb the hair to remove dead lice and nits.

RAZOR HONE PASTE

929 G.T.C., Meenut -Wishes to have a good formula of razor hone paste.

Fine carborundum powder	6 lbs.
Beef suet (freshly rendered)	2 "
Beeswax yellow	1 lb.

Melt the suet and the wax then incorporate the carborundum powder. Cool and cut into small cubes or put in tin containers while still warm.

ETCHING POWDER FOR IRON AND STEEL

912 P.P.C., Meenut City -Desires to know a process of etching iron and steel.

Blue vitriol	50 parts.
Common salt	50 "

Mix and then moistened with water just before application over iron and steel to be etched.

For lustrous figures on a dull ground the whole surface is polished, the portions which are to remain bright covered with stencils and the object exposed to the fumes of nitric acid. This is best done by pouring sulphuric acid 20 parts, over common salt 10 parts.

LUMINOUS PAINTS

953 P.N.C., Anakapalle -Desires to know process and formulas of preparing luminous paints.

In the manufacture of luminous pigments the quality and purity of the raw materials are of the greatest importance. The calcium oxide used in most luminous pigments is obtained by calcining pure marble or Iceland spar. The sulphur used should be recrystallized from carbon bisulphide. Only purest rice starch and not impure potato starch should be used as reducing agent.

LUMINOUS BASE

Calcium oxide	5 g.
Sulphur	10 "
Starch	2 "

This base can be activated with a solution of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent thorium nitrate and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bismuth nitrate in alcohol slightly acidified with nitric acid. One of the fundamental requirements is a good and uniform distribution of the effective heavy metals throughout the whole mass. This is accomplished by grinding thoroughly a portion of the base in the solution and slowly adding more base until all ingredients have been mixed carefully.

The colour of the luminescence can be varied and controlled within wide limits. A blue luminescence is emitted by the following pigment:

Luminous base	15	g.
Potassium sulphate	0.25	"
Sodium sulphate	0.25	"
Bismuth nitrate solution	0.5	c.c.
Thorium nitrate solution	1.0	"

This mixture is calcined for fifteen minutes at white heat. The crucible is first charged with a layer of charcoal or coke on which the mixture is pressed and allowed to dry thoroughly. The crucible is then covered with a lid and sealed with a magnesia cement. After calcination is completed the crucible is removed from the furnace and cooled quickly. The resultant luminous pigment should be kept in large pieces in well sealed containers. For incorporation in luminous paints the pigment should be powdered only coarsely since very fine grinding affects luminosity adversely.

The following pigments can be prepared in a similar manner.

YELLOW LUMINOUS PIGMENT

Barium oxide	10	g.
Sulphur	?	"
Starch	1	"
Potassium sulphate	0.1	"
Bismuth nitrate solution	0.5	c.c.
Thorium nitrate solution	1.0	"

Calcining time 35 minutes at white heat.

GREEN LUMINOUS PIGMENT

Strontium oxide	10	g.
Sulphur	8	"
Starch	2	"
Potassium sulphate	0.25	"
Bismuth nitrate solution	0.5	c.c.
Thorium nitrate solution	1.0	"

Other colours can be produced by varying the activating salt. Uranium salts give blue to bluish violet luminescence; cerium salts, red-dish-yellow; antimony salts, greenish-yellow; mercury salts, green; manganese sulphide, golden yellow; gold salts, green; copper salts, green; molybdenum sulphide, orange; and lead sulphide, blue-green. Colloidal solutions of metallies or sulphides which can be kept in colloidal solution by the formation of complex salts may also be used as activators.

HAIR CURLING LIQUID

979 P.P.P., Samarkha -Wishes to have recipes of hair curling liquid, hair removing lotion, etc.

Glycerine	100	grams.
Sodium sulphite	100	"
Water	1000	c.c.
Ammonia (10%) solution	100	grams.

Dissolve the glycerine and the sulphite in the water, and add to this the ammonia solution.

HAIR REMOVING LOTION

Sodium sulphide	14	parts.
Water	160	"
Rect. spirit	4	"
Glycerine	20	"
Lavender oil	1-	part.

Dissolve the sulphide in some of the water add the glycerine and mix. Add the remainder of the water and finally the lavender oil, solved in the spirit, mix well and filter.

PAIN BALM

Yellow vaselin	24	oz.
Methyl salicylate	2	"
Oil of cajuput	1	"
Oil of eucalyptus	1	"
Peppermint crystals	1	"
Wool fat	10	"

Melt the vaselin and wool fat over a fire and then remove from the source of heat and mix the other ingredients with stirring. Continue stirring until the mass is almost solidified.

PREPARATION OF PAPAIN

1037 C.F., Vythiri—Desires to know process of preparing papain.

The best method to prepare papain is to collect the juice of unripe papaw by making shallow longitudinal incisions about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch deep in the well grown fruits, by means of a sharp metallic knife such as a bone or ebony knife.

Fruits in which only three to four incisions are made simultaneously can be incised again after a day or two. The juice resembles a very thin sticky latex which coagulates rapidly.

The fruits should be incised in the morning and the juice strained through muslin and dried at about 35°C for two days, when it forms a cream coloured brittle mass with unpleasant odour. The mass can be ground to a powder.

The juice should be collected in glass or earthenware and a trace of formalin added to the juice which will prevent decomposition. Small quantities of juice may be dried in the sun on sheets of glass. Large quantities however are prepared preferably by spreading the juice on linen trays made by stretching linen on wooden frames placed over a hot air chamber of bricks avoiding excessive heat. For this purpose an iron plate covered with 2 to 3 inches of sand between the fire and hot air chamber of bricks avoiding excessive heat. For this purpose an iron plate covered with 2 to 3 inches of sand between the fire and the hot air chamber may be used with the hot air about one foot above the plate.

Artificial dyeing in this way should be done below 100°C. On a large scale however, vacuum drying would be found to be very efficient. The juice contracts in drying and the contents of several trays can be placed subsequently in one to complete the drying. The juice should be dried till it is crisp and capable of being reduced to a powder.

to a powder. A cream coloured or white powder is obtained. The yield of crude dried material amounts to about 16 to 18 per cent of the weight of the juice.

After drying the mass is ground, while still warm in a stone mortar with a stone pestle. The crude product is a white amorphous powder. In order to purify this impure substance, it is mixed with a sufficient quantity of absolute alcohol and it is found that about 75 per cent of the crude mass is dissolved in it. It is then filtered and the filtrate on evaporation gives a pure substance; which can be used again.

AMARIND SEED KERNEL FOR TEXTILE SIZING.

1048 K.H.K., Bombay--Wants to have a process of extracting tamarind seed powder for textile sizing.

The curtailment of starches made from food products created the textile industry's interest in new sizing materials. Since fruit pectin is not obtainable either, another kind of pectin made from tamarind seeds has bright prospects. It is disposed of as a waste material. Tamarind seed is a rich source of pectin for various industrial applications. It constitutes a highly viscous solution in water and additions of borax have been found to appreciably increase its viscosity. In order to effect formation of a water-holding gel these properties approximate the qualities of gum tragacanth and tragasol, and in the fabrication of rubber the new pectin is already being employed as an equal replacement for these substances. As a sizing material for textiles, it is superior to gum karaya and preferably equal to starch. In consideration of the reasonable price, it can be expected to become dominant.

The sizing material is prepared by heating the seed to 150°C for about 15 minutes, soaking the decorticated kernels in water, and drying them for powdering. Instead of the 7.5 per cent solution employed where tapioca starch is used a 5 per cent. solution of the tamarind sizing powder can be recommended for correct viscosity and consistency.

VERMILION

1058 D., Kanpur--Wishes to have good formula of vermilion.

Red lead	8 lbs.
Zinc oxide	5 "
Venetian red	1 lb.
Vermilion dye	2 lbs.

Macerate these ingredients thoroughly in a stone mortar and set aside for 24 hours in a cool place. Finally reduce it to fine powder and pack.

COLOURED CHALK CRAYONS

1100 P.P.W., Masulipatam — Desires to know formulas of coloured chalk crayons.

WHITE

Precipitated chalk	40 parts.
Plaster of Paris	45 "

Lithophone	10 parts.
Glue solution	5.10 "

Knead all together to make a soft dough and pour into gun metal moulds. When set take out and allow to dry in air. Then put all together in a tray and moderately bake over mild fire.

BLACK

Soapstone	28 lbs.
Gypsum	20 "
Bone Black	8 "

Mix and make into a stiff paste, with thin glue or gum, mould and dry gradually.

YELLOW

Chalk	28 lbs.
Soapstone	18 "
Pipe clay	10 "
Yellow ochre	6 1/2 "
Medium lemon chrome	1 1/2 "

First well mix ochre and chrome, then add to others, making a paste as before.

BLUE

Soapstone	15 lbs.
Gypsum	15 "
Chinese blue	1 1/2 "

Proceed as before

GREEN

Gypsum	35 lbs.
Soapstone	25 "
Pipe clay	30 "
Lemon chrome yellow	7 "
Chinese blue	6 "

Mix Chinese blue and chrome together; add to others, making and moulding as previously.

RED

Whiting	15 lbs.
Soapstone	28 "
Pipeclay	10 "
Indian red	7 "
Venetian red	1 1/2 "

Proceed as before.

THINNERS FOR CELLULOSE LACQUERS.

1133 C.R.R., Bangalore —Wants to have good formulas of thinners for cellulose lacquers, hydraulic brake fluid, etc.

Acetone	8 parts.
Ethyl acetate	2 "
Ethyl lactate	2 "

Mix in a well stoppered bottle.

PAPER BAGS

"Greaseproof paper bags for wafers and massalas, and Sulphite paper bags for tea coffee, distemper and other industries, made to your sizes."

D. DARASHAW & CO.,
24, Jambulwadi, Bombay 2.

—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEMS

[Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to write us his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful career. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by post.]

STARTING A CAREER WITH SMALL CAPITAL

869 R., Agra—Writes, "I am keen after starting some industry but I have neither capital nor experience. So please advise me accordingly."

It is very difficult on our part to suggest any kind of industry which can be started without any capital. You may however start some mail order business which can be started with small capital and can be worked in leisure time. This business will not yield you any profit in the first two years. In course of these two years you will get experiences that will be of much help in successive years of your business career. The first attempt that you should make is in marketing some cheap novelties. The large houses do not usually handle such things. So there is not much danger of coming in contact with the class. The most dangerous competition will in probability come from your rival, the small mail order class, the number of which is very limited. But if you are very keen upon starting any kind of small industry you may take up manufacture of ink. Process of manufacturing all sorts of ink will be found in *Manufacture of Ink*, published from this office, price Rs. 3/7/- including postage.

MAKING MONEY IN A SHOP

1148 S.C.B.R., Madras—Wishes to be enlightened on how to make money in a shop.

The most important factor about making money happily in your shop is your attitude towards it. Too many people enter shop life because they think it is an easy way of making money. You buy goods at one price and sell them at another, and the balance is profit.

HARIKUME'S Hosiery Needles

(Made in Japan)

AGENTS & STOCKISTS:

DAWN & CO.,

11, PORTUGUESE CHURCH ST.,

CALCUTTA - 1.

Grams: Phone: 9
Old dawn. B. B. 514 & 5755.

Actually, making money happily in a shop is one of the hardest ways of choosing a living but it is also one of the most interesting things.

The fascination of meeting a lot of people of building up your shop sales, of struggling for master and come out on top of a thousand other one problems that beset the average shopkeeper, is perhaps the main reason for success in a shop.

The second reason for success in a shop is understanding your public. It takes pluck to buy, and it takes skill to buy the right goods. Wrong buying kills the shop at birth. A successful shops are built up by skilful, pluck buying and thousands fail because of the failure to accept this first fact.

Some people think buying is a gift-outwardly it is, but I have never met a skilful buyer who is not a master of his line, and his public mind. This skill was not gifted at birth, has been built up by long study, careful analysis, wise observation and a ready willingness all times to recognise mistakes one of the most difficult things to bring oneself to do in a shop.

The third reason for success in a shop is a desire to grow. Folk who start a shop as heaven, generally make it a cemetery where they bury their fondest hopes. As you grow, there are many ways to grow, as long as you will grow. On the law of average your shop is but your lengthened shadow. As you grow inside, the evidence in outward visible form.

Making a shop pay is a full and absorbing task, for to make it more, calls for hard thinking allied to hardwork. Successful shops grow more when they reflect prosperity. Even if you are having a bad time, begin to think good things. Get outside your shop the first opportunity to ask yourself "Does my shop radiate prosperity?" Because although the public ought to help the shop that needs help the most, generally patronises the shop that looks though the shop confers the favour by being open.

Make your shop look what you want it to be. Remember, the onus is on you and not on the customer. If the customer does not deal with you as you want him to deal, it is your fault. Make your store active, prosperous and good-looking. Show movement and vitality. If necessary paint up and clean up. Display windows more often; send out more samples. Have competitions among the salesmen. Do something to let the public know you are moving.

—BRIEF QUERIES AND REPLIES

[Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from our experts will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of As. 8 stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two International Reply coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters.]

901 A.N.V., Ludhiana — Plastic powder may be had of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., 18, Strand Road, Calcutta.

902 K.L.G., Bilaspur — Refer your query to The Controller of Exports, New Delhi.

908 M.A., Hyderabad — We have no book on synthetic perfume manufacture. You better try at Thaker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

909 K.S.N., Trichur — An article on ink manufacture appeared in April, 1950 issue of Industry. We have also a book Manufacture of Ink, price Rs 3/9/- including postage.

911 C.F.W., Wattala — Fancy tin cans may be had of Bengal Tin Box Mfg. Co., 1, Jadu Nath Mitter Lane; National Sheet & Metal Works Ltd., 36A, Sahitya Parishad Street and Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpur; all of Calcutta.

913 I.X.P., Chilaw — Optical goods may be had of Eastern Optical & Co., 306, Bow Bazar Street; Geneva-Optics & Co., 5, Bow Bazar Street; James Murray & Co. Ltd., 5, Old Court House Street; and New Indian Optical Co., 257/3, Bow Bazar Street; all of Calcutta. There is no institute that teaches optician's course by correspondence.

915 S.H.J., Farrukhabad — You may add the powder to the oil and stir vigorously, let the oil settle completely for 24 hours. Now decant the oil and filter.

917 M.S., Gauhati — You should make arrangement for vacuum packing of fish pickles to prevent fungus. For preserving lemon juice you may use potassium metabisulphite in the proportion of 1 part in 1000 parts of lemon juice.

918 M.P.D., Bishnupur — For rope and string making machine enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta 1.

920 S.V.K., Hubli — Cigarette making machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

922 J.P.S., Moradabad — You may consult Plastic Industry published from this office, price Re. 1/8/- including postage. Plastic mould may be had of Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place and Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road; both of Calcutta. Moulding powder may be had of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., 18, Strand Road, Calcutta.

923 P.G.M., Cachar — Motor accessories may be had of Howrah Motor Co. Ltd., Mission Row Extension, Calcutta; Premier Automobile Ltd., Construction House, Ballard Estate, Bombay and Standard Auto Parts Co., 2-30, Mount Road, Madras. Tarpaulin may be had of Asher & Co., Vadgadi, Bombay; Manton & Martin, 70, Netaji

Subhas Road, Calcutta and Roberts McLean & Co. Ltd., 31, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

924 D.A., Wai — For wood working machines enquire of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension; both of Calcutta. Colour may be had of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., 18, Strand Road, Calcutta. Yes, you may use deodar wood for making toys. You may start this business with Rs. 5000 as initial capital.

925 S.C., Cannanore — For Income Tax Manual enquire of Thaker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

926 C.M.V., Baroda — Carnauba wax, shellac wax, etc. may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane and Banshidhar Dutt 126, Keshupally Street; both of Calcutta.

927 M.M.D., Bangalore — Refer your query to British Trade Commissioner, 1, Harrington Street, Calcutta.

928 C.M.P., Alwar — No such institutions are available.

929 G.T.C., Meerut — Process of manufacturing, sharpening whet stone will appear in due course.

932 R.L.F., Udaipur — All the ingredients may be had of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Keshupally Street, Calcutta.

935 J.S.P., Arcot — We are not aware of the use of formalin in paper manufacture. For paper enquire of Photographic stores & Agency Co. Ltd., 151, Dharanatala Street Calcutta.

937 S.K.D., Gauhati — Battery acid used in storage batteries is diluted sulphuric acid. By mixing one pint of pure sulphuric acid with 4 pints of distilled water dilute sulphuric acid of 1.200 sp. gravity is obtained which may be used as battery acid. Umbrella handle making machine is not available.

939 S.C.V., Shivpur — We are not aware of the particular of sitawara.

941 M.B.P., Saharanpur — Following is formula of iron slate coating: First prepare the silicate solution by finely crushing equal parts of solid potash and soda silicate and pouring over this 6 times the quantity of soft river water, which is kept boiling for about

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1½ hours, whereby the silicate is completely dissolved. Next take 7 parts of slate finely ground with a little water into impalpable dust and mix with 1 part lamp black. Grind enough of this mass with the previously prepared silicate solution as is necessary for a thick or thin coating.

942 P.P.C., Meerut City—We have no book on tin printing. Process of etching steel will appear in due course.

943 M.I., Charkhasi—We are not aware of any institution where training is given on cinematography.

945 A.B., Barajamda—For paper pin making machine enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P-12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

948 S.I.E., Ottapalam—Particulars regarding glass electrodes are not available. Process of manufacturing rubber stamp will be found in Manufacture of Rubber Goods published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

952 L.R., Bhadrak—Following is a recipe of vermilion or sindur: Red lead 8 lbs.; Zinc oxide 5 lbs.; Venetian red 1 lb.; Vermilion dye 2 lbs. Macerate these ingredients thoroughly in a stone mortar and set aside for 24 hours in a cool place. Finally reduce it to fine powder and pack.

953 P.N.C., Anakapalle—Process of manufacturing luminous paint will appear in an early issue of Industry.

954 B.R.R., Anakapalle—Process of making neon glow sign will appear in an early issue of Industry.

955 R.K.P., Lucknow—Process of manufacturing rose water will appear in due course.

963 S.N.G., Calcutta—For machine parts and other appliances of required design write to Industrial Machine & Tool Manufacturing Co., 41, Panchanantola Road, Howrah.

964 H.S.D., Bhusawal—Case hardening compound is used for hardening steel or other metals. In case hardening certain articles it is sometimes necessary or desirable to leave spots or sections in the original soft uncarbonised condition while the remainder is carbonised and hardened.

967 B.N.O., Rajkot—Process of preparing ghee will be found in Milk and Milk Products published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage. You should arrange for vacuum packing of ghee.

973 B.N.S., Moradabad—For Derby tickets write to The Secretary, Royal Calcutta Turf Club, 11, Russel Street, Calcutta.

TRADE MARKS & PATENTS

For any difficulty in registration of trade marks & patents in India or abroad Consult :

DEWAN RAJ KUMAR,
Trade Marks & Patents Attorney,

78, Pedar Chambers, Fort, Bombay.

Phone: 32444. Note: Head office of Trade Marks Registry for India is in Bombay.

974 S.K.M., Bombay—You have to varnish to leather. A formula of leather nish is given below: An excellent varnish leather can be made from the following recipe: Heat 400 lbs. of boiled linseed oil to 212°F add little by little 2 lbs. of bichromate potash, keeping the same temperature. Addition of the bichromate should be about 15 minutes. Raise to 310°F and gradually during 1 hour at that temperature 1 lb. of prussian blue. Heat for 3 hours gradually raising to 482° to 572°F with constant stirring. In the meantime heat together 392°F for ½ an hour, 25 lbs linseed oil, 35 lbs copal, 75 lbs. turpentine and 7 lbs. ceres. Mix the two varnishes and dilute, if necessary when cold with turpentine. The varnish requires to be warmed for easy application with the brush.

976 I.I.D., Calcutta—Following is a list of turpentine and rosin manufacturers: Bhag Rosin & Turpentine Factory, Bhagwan Road, Hoshiarpur; Himalaya Rosin & Turpentine Mfg. Co., Rikhikesh, Dehra Dun; Natarosin & Turpentine Mfg. Co., 27, Baran Ghosh Street, Calcutta and Soni Rosin Factory, Bharwain Road, Hoshiarpur.

979 P.L.P., Samakhya—Formulas of curling liquid, pain balm and depilatory will appear in due course.

980 M.P.P.C., Bhitwara—Reply to query appears in June issue under No. 59.

983 S.K.K., Ludhiana—For power loom enquire of the following firms: Brita Engineering Co. Ltd., 28, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta; Imperial Engineering & Textile Co. Ltd., 67 B, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Hiran Loom Co. Ltd., 5, Bank Street, 1 Bombay.

984 K.M.R., Bhagalpur—It is very difficult on our part to suggest names of firms interested in dry ehana to be used in manufacture of casein.

985 U.P.T., Moulmeingyun—In order to produce pale colour you should mix a small quantity of tannin.

988 R.G.P., Sabarmati—Glass bottles can be had of Victoria Glass Works, 130, Meera Bazar Street; Krishna Glass & Silicate Works Ltd., 17, Radha Bazar Street, and Jayanti Glass Works Ltd., 8, Ezra Street; all of Calcutta. For labels and perfumes enquire of F.N. Sanyal, 37, Canning Street; Paradise Perfumery House, 7, Colootola Street and Sikri & Co., 55, Canning Street; all of Calcutta.

990 A.C.R., Madura—Following is a formula of French polish: Shellac 4 oz.; Sand 1 oz.; Sand 4 oz.; Methylated spirit 2 oz. Powder the sandarac and shellac, mix with sand, and dissolve in the spirit. Decant clear portion and filter the remainder.

991 U.P., Palasbari—We cannot venture an opinion regarding financial position and reliability of any individual firm.

992 S.L.V., Sujapur—For soda water making machines enquire of Essence & Supply Agency, 14, Radha Bazar Street; Oriental Traders, 5, Ezra Street; both Calcutta.

993 N.R.R., Ipurupalem—Your letter is unintelligible.

994 R.C.C., Jaora—For paper toys write to Depin Behary Dass & Grandson, 63F & G, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta.; Doll, Dummy & Toy Manufacturing Co., 27, South End Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta, and Fancy Toy Works, Outside Dariba Kalan, Delhi and Hari Charan Dass & Co., 63H, Radha Bazar Street, Calcutta.

996 H.N.B., Kamrup—Following is a formula of chalk crayons: Precipitated chalk 10 parts; Plaster of Paris 45 parts; Lithopone 10 parts; Glue solution 5-10 parts. Knead all together to make a soft dough and pour into iron metal moulds. When set take out and allow to dry in air. Then put all together in a tray and moderately bake over mild fire.

997 K.K.D., Kanpur—No such herb is available. Braying is making paste with the addition of water. Seeds should be removed. Process should be continued for 6 months, treating each batch of oil for one month.

998 M.M.H., Olavakkot—For grinding machine enquire of Industrial Machine & Tool Mfg. Co., 41, Panchanantola Road, Howrah and Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., 112, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

999 C.L.A., Indore—Electroplating appliances and raw materials may be had of S. Mitra & Co., 30, Bentinck Street, Calcutta; Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13-3, Strand Road, Calcutta and P. Orr & Sons, Mount Road, Madras.

1002 D.K., Bombay First of all apply a coating of shellac varnish then set cork feet to the cap by means of pressure.

1003 B.A.P., Madras All the addresses you require will be found in Industry Year Book & Directory, published from this office, price Rs. 16/4/- including postage.

1006 I.S., New Delhi Sewing machines manufactured by Jay Engineering Works Ltd., 183, Prince Anwarshah Road, Dhakara, Calcutta and K. C. Mullick & Sons Ltd., 17-13, Govarambala Street, Calcutta. You may try to get an apprentice in one of the above factories. You will require at least Rs. 10 lakhs for starting a sewing machine manufacturing concern.

1007 J.C.A., Kalimati For barometer enquire of the following firms: Adair Dutt & Co., 101, Stephen House, 5, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta; Bengal Apparatus Manufacturing Co., Chitadanga Junction Road, and Indian Scientific Stores, 11-2, Old China Bazar Street; all in Calcutta. Glass syringe may be had of Scientific Glass Apparatus Co., 5A, Prosnanna Kumar Tagore Street, Calcutta and Scientific Supplies Co. (Bengal) Ltd., C37-3, College Street, Market, Calcutta.

1009 J.P.M., Moradabad—You may take up manufacture of Zarda, Surti and Kimam which may be started on home industry basis with Rs. 2000/-. You may also start shoe lace manufacture. Process of making zarda, surti and kimam will be found in Indian Tobacco and Its Preparations published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

1010 A.N.S., Dacca—An article on snuff manufacture appeared in April, 1950, issue of Industry. If you go through the article you will get all the information regarding snuff manufacture.

1011 B.O.H., Calcutta Process of manufacturing Zylonite sheet will appear in due course.

1015 D.P., Monghyr—We are not aware of Materia Medica in Hindi. You may however enquire of the following booksellers:—Educational Book Depot, Katra Road, Allahabad and R. S. Ram Dayal Agarwala, 216, Katra, Allahabad.

1016 S.S.C., Kakinada Silicate of soda may be had of Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane; Puniah Silicate Works, 28, Bagmari Road and Raj Silicate & Chemical Co., 26, Birtolla Street; all of Calcutta.

1017 V.D., Anakapalli—Process of manufacturing batteries will be found in Manufacture of Batteries published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

1021 B.L., Salem Process of manufacturing lac or shellac appeared in May, 1951, issue of Industry. Seed lac is known as raw lac as obtained from branches of trees. Shellac is manufactured from seed lac.

1022 H.F.W., Rajasthan—Following is a list of cycle parts and accessories manufacturers: Hindusthan Bicycle Manufacturing & Industrial Corporation Ltd., Phulwari Sharif, Patna, India Cycle Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 9, Tiljala Road, Calcutta and Sen Raleigh Industries of India Ltd., Mercantile Bldg., Lall Bazar, Calcutta.

1023 N.R.L.F., Kanpur Printed tin cans may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B-2, Dule Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta and National Sheet and Metal Works Ltd., 36A, Sahitva Bazarad Street, Calcutta. Plastic machine may be had of Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place and Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13-3, Strand Road; both of Calcutta.

1024 S.D., Calcutta Following is a list of herb dealers of Kashmir Fairways. Post Box 51, Srinagar and Kashmir Herbal Cottage, 7th Bridge, Sarni Safa Kadal, Srinagar.

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1978 Y.V.R., Amalapuram — Address of
Glass Works is 147/B, Raja Dinendra
Calcutta. Address of Bharat Glass
Ltd. is Belgharia, W. Bengal.

1979 E.C.T., Agra — A good formula of
hair oil appeared in March, 1951, issue
Industry. In this connection you may con-
Indian Perfumes, Essences and Hair Oil;
from this office, price Rs. 1.9/-
postage.

1986 A.S.A., Delhi—For patent and trade
registration write to Dutta & Co., 82,
London Road and Law Morris & Co., 19,
Old Road; both of Calcutta.

1987 D.G.P., Lashkar—Vernacular equi-
of the ingredients are not available.
wood, brazil wood, resin etc., may be had
Kanshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street,
Calcutta. Carmine may be had of Fuzlehussein
Bros., 44, Armenian Street, Calcutta. Rosin
and rosin soap may be had of Calcutta
Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta.

1968 W.U.H., Partabgarh—Chemicals may
be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bon-
field Lane, Calcutta. Minerals may be had
Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson
Road, Calcutta. Dyes may be had of Fuzlehus-
sein & Bros., 44, Armenian Street and Champalal
Bhargava, 45, Armenian Street; both of Calcutta.

1970 P.B., Hyderabad—An article on
manufacture of sizing from tamarind seed
oil appeared in March, 1951, issue of Indus-
try.

For grinding machine enquire of Bahner
Bros. & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road
and T. E. Thomson & Co. Ltd., 9A, Esplanade
Road; both of Calcutta. Process of sizing arti-
ficial silk will appear in due course.

1971 M.H.W., Rajkot—We have no book
working of a hosiery machine. You better
enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933), Ltd., 2,
Lande East, Calcutta.

1972 A.J.M., Wadachanchery—You may
consult Modern Pottery Manufacture by H. N.
Bose published by Ceramic Publishing Co., 1,
Arch Road, Bhagalpur.

1973 C.S.M.L., Kanpur—Following is a list
waterproof manufacturers: Bengal Water-
proof Works (1940) Ltd., 32, Theatre Road,
Calcutta and India Waterproofing Co., Hasan-
bhai, Corner of Parsee Bazar Street and
Ganga Street, Bombay.

1974 T.R.C., Indore—City—For particulars
of agents of Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd., 102,
Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta write direct.

1975 R. J. P., Ahmednagar—Process of
manufacturing macaroni will appear in due
course.

1976 G.V.R., Vizianagram—Plastic machine
may be had of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd.,
13-2, Strand Road, and Francis Klein & Co.
Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta.

1977 M.C.J., Amroha—For plastic cases
enquire of Popular Plastic Products, 4, Upper
Chitpore Road, Calcutta; Phoomi Mal Dharam
Bhai, Chauri Bazar, Rajhi and Popular Plastics,
Ruby House, Opp. Colaba Tram Terminus,
Bombay. Glass Phials may be had of Balsukh
Glass Works, 7, Swallow Lane; Economic Glass
House, 25A, Swallow Lane and Hind Glass
Works Ltd., 35, Chittaranjan Avenue; all of
Calcutta.

1978 K.J.K., Kottayam—For asphalt
enquire of Universal Asphalt Products & Con-
struction Co. Ltd., Citadelle, Queens Road,
Bombay and Standard Vacuum Oil Co., Imperial
Chambers, Wilson Rd., Ballard Estate, Bombay.

1979 P.P.N., Chittoor—Mira products may
be had of Mira Chemical Industries Ltd., 11A,
Prince Anwar Shah Road, Tollygunge, Calcutta.

1983 H.S.S., Hariana—For lottery tickets
enquire of Royal Calcutta Turf Club, 12, Russel
St., Calcutta.

1984 K., Moradabad—An article on gilding
appeared in October, 1950, issue of Industry. If
you go through the article you will get detail-
ed information about gilding.

1986 M.A., Madras—You perhaps mean
fountain pen ink. Formulas of good fountain
pen ink will be found in April, 1950, issue of
Industry. Following is a list of fountain pen
ink manufacturers: Sulekha Works Ltd.,
Lalapur, Calcutta 32; J. B. Dutt & Co., 167,
Old China Bazar Street, Calcutta; P. M. Bagchi
& Co., 19, Gulu Ostagar Lane, Calcutta; Viswa
Sambhar Products, 5, Tobin Road, Calcutta 35,
and Skolar Ink Company, 11-2, Old China Bazar
Street, Calcutta.

1987 G.M.M.C., Bombay—A formula of
good snow appeared in April, 1950, issue of
Industry.

1989 J.D., Lucknow—For cold storage
plants enquire of American Refrigerator Co.,
69, Dharamtala Street; British Refrigerations,
30A, Chowringhee Road; F. & C. Osler Ltd., 12,
Old Court House Street; M. S. Vernal & Co.,
Bharat Insurance Bldg., Chittaranjan Avenue
South and Refrigerators (India) Ltd., 59C,
Park Street; all of Calcutta. Instructions re-
garding working the plants will be supplied by

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transformations that take place in the individual. A new mental phase develops at the age of thirteen. The book makes an interesting study of the changes of mentality taking place in the child and advocates a new system of education which will allow the children to develop normally. The book is a fine exposition of Montessori system of education which is getting popular all over the world and as such should merit careful perusal by teachers of boys and parents as well.

NOTICES & REVIEWS

(Manufacturers sending specimens and samples of their products for notice and review may please note that no notice is published of medical preparations and allied substances in this section.)

NOVEL WOODWORKING MACHINERY

The pressing need of India to-day is after the food problem—the housing problem. Man wants to build his house in the shortest time, at the cheapest cost with greatest convenience. It is only ingenious machines that can do the transformation of the rough trees into fine building materials in no time.

The well-known South-Indian Industrialist Mr. G. D. Naidu managed to get a complete set of the FESTO Woodworking Machines to India during his last tour to Germany. The FESTO Machines exhibiting the great German technique will be a boon to the industrialists.

Mr. Kurt Stoll, the son of the manufacturer of these machines is also on a holiday trip in Coimbatore, and is demonstrating the machines at the Industrial Educational Exhibition in Gopal Bagh, Coimbatore sponsored by Mr. G. D. Naidu.

A list of the machines whose advertisement is appearing elsewhere in this issue is given below:

FESTO Chain Saw for Felling Trees and for Cutting to length. Available either with electric motor or with petrol engine for taking out to the forest where no current is available. The outstanding feature of these machines is the extreme easy manipulation.

FESTO Parallel Saw for all kinds of cutting wood up to eight inches cutting depth: cutting to length, angle cutting, cutting rafters, edging, grooving etc.

FESTO Universal Carpentry Machine another useful machine for house construction: for mortising, drilling, milling string boards, pointing dowels, grinding etc.

FESTO Universal Planing Machine for Carpentry Work which saves very much time and gives you a smooth and clean surface: for planing, surfacing, grinding, milling, sawing, boring etc.

FESTO Electric Hand Band Saw which has the advantage of being stationary and portable too.

FESTO Electric Hand Circular Saw from which two different sizes are available; one up to 3½ inches cutting depth and another one up to 6 inches cutting depth. Both can be used portable or as an ordinary stationary table saw.

FESTO Motor Disc Sander which helps you in doing all kinds of sanding and finishing jobs. More than 10,000 in use are working to the satisfaction of their users.

FESTO Chain Mortising Machine for making the joints for doors, windows, chairs, tables etc. with built-in switch and only one working lever.

FESTO Tenoning Machine which contains three machines in one; for it cuts to length, cuts the tenon and cuts the counterprofile: the tenon—the slot in a very short working procedure and absolute accurate.

FESTO Shutter Grooving Machines making all kinds of grooves.

FESTO Polishing Machine which gives five times more efficiency than by hand polishing and which is unrivalled in capacity.

All these woodworking machines are available in India.

FOUNTAIN PEN INK AND DENTAL FLUID

We have received from S. N. Tenell, Shahabad, one phial Free-Flow ink which is found to be satisfactory.

We have also received from them one phial of Tenell's Dental fluid, said to be a germicidal preparation, which prevents pyorrhoea and cures toothache.

NIBS

We are glad to receive two samples of nibs, one of which is for red ink and the other is relief nib. These are manufactured by C. Karmakar & Co., Anandapuri, Barrackpore, Parganas, West Bengal. We have tested the nibs and found to be good and serviceable.

LIFE INSURANCE DIRECTORY, 1950

We regret that in the last issue some error crept in in reviewing the book on page 1 column 2. The name of the book was wrongly given as the Insurance Directory 1950 which should be Life Insurance Directory 1950. The publishers of the book are Chhaya Publications Ltd., and not Chhaya Publishers Ltd., as there through mistake.

TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write him direct with name and address given below mentioning Industry.)

1032 B.R. Tibarawala, Ratan Nagar, B. Nagar—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of Coptia Tecta and Leopard stone.

1071 T. Ram Chander & Co., 15, Mahatma Gandhi Road, Gali, No 1, Indore City—Wants to be put in touch with the manufacturers of bolts, nuts, penal pins and rivets, china clay and owners in Chaibasa Kendposi, Bombay Presidency and Kathiawar and tamarind seed and tapioca flour manufacturers of Madras and Mysore.

1125 National Stores, Kamptee, (M.P.)—Wants to be put in touch with the wholesale dealers in fish.

FOR DETAILS ABOUT MANUFACTURING

Toilet creams, cold creams, vanishing creams, complexion cream, toilet powders, pomade, toilet water, toilet lotions, shampoos, rouge, eyebrow pencil, hair restorer, shaving creams, after-shave lotions etc.

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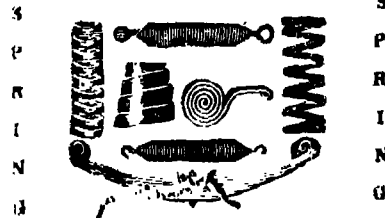
ALL INDIA SPRING MFG. Co.

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135, Netaji Subhas Road, P. B. No. 824,
CALCUTTA - 1.

Telegrams: "Springshop," Calcutta.
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INDUSTRY PUBLICATION

Industry Year Book and Directory, 1951 with Classified Lists of Traders & Industries, Newspapers, etc. -- -- --	Rs. 15-0	Practical Metal Casting by D. Day Scholar of City and Guilds Institutes of Technology, London --	Rs. 6
Theory & Practice of Commerce and Business Organisation. By J. C. Mitra F.S.S. (London), F.R.E.S. --	Rs. 12-0	Mechanical Industries --Dealing with the manufacture of Sheet Metal Articles - Safety Razor Blades - Wire Nail - Safety Pin - Hair Pin - Paper Clip - Hinge - Spoons and Forks - Penholders - Collapsible Tubes - Fountain Pen - Leather Suit Case - Bucket etc. -- -- --	Rs. 2
The Electrician by V. L. N. Row, B.Sc. (Eng.), A.M.I.E. --	Rs. 6-0	Utilisation of Common Products The Utilization of Citrus Products - Citrus Acid - Tartaric Acid - Pectin - Starch - Gum - Citron - Essential Oil - Turpentine Extracts etc. --	Rs. 6
Apprentice Shop Practice by M. N. Swamin -- -- --	Rs. 5-8	Independent Careers for the Young --	Rs. 2
Sell What You Make —A Treatise on Marketing of Proprietary Articles in India. By P. A. Tyron Mascyk -- -- --	Rs. 5-0	Manufacture of Catechu , By B. S. Chatterjee M.F. --	Rs. 2
Home Knitting by Rekha Banerjee --	Rs. 5-0	Manufacture of Syrups & Cold Drinks --	Rs. 3-0
Safety Matches and Their Manufacture by K. C. Das Gupta --	Rs. 5-0	Manufacture of Rubber Goods --	Rs. 3-0
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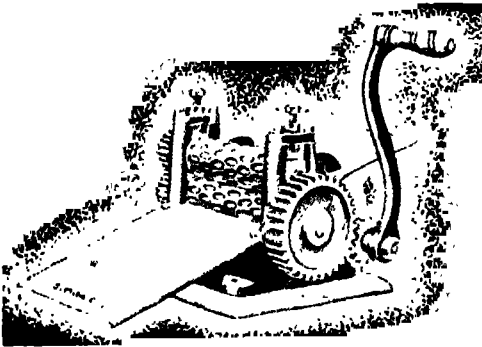
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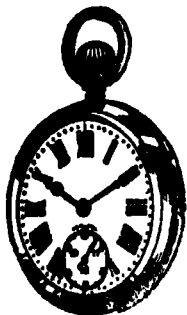
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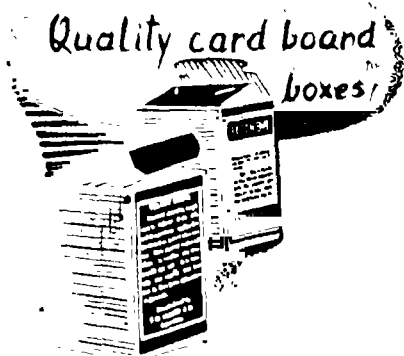
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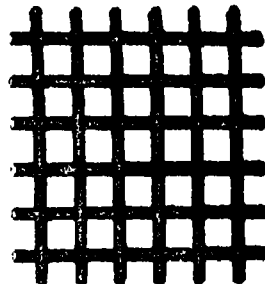


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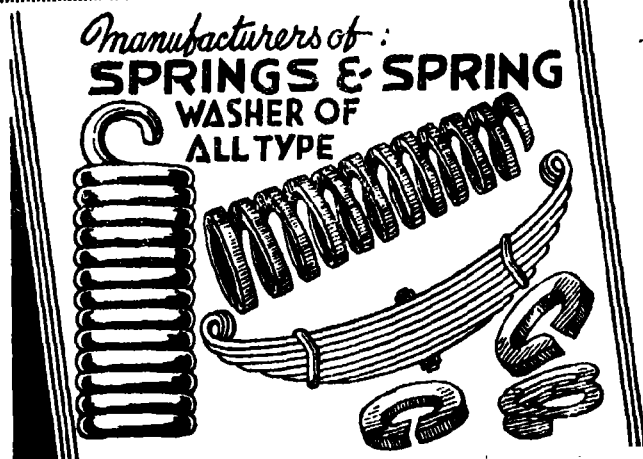
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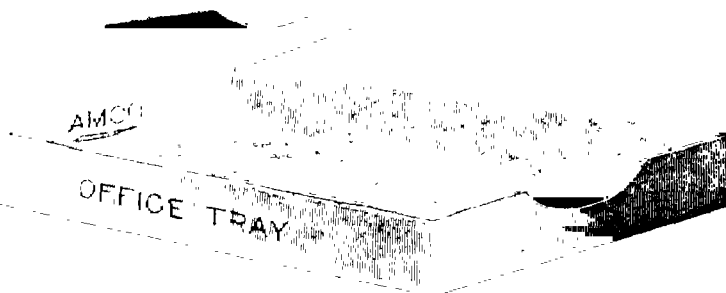
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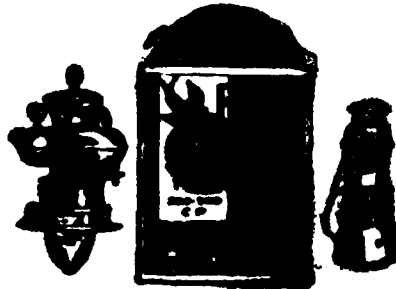


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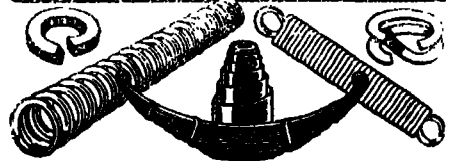
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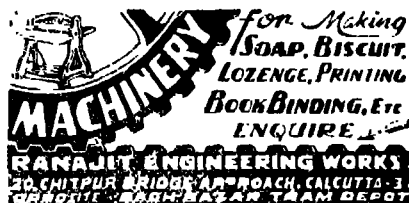
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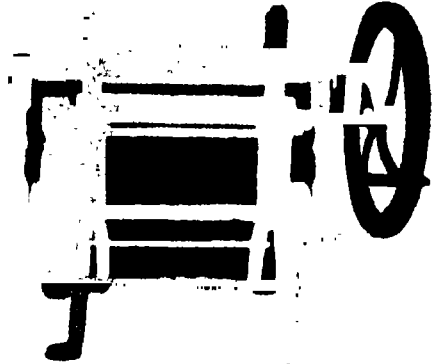
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INDUSTRIES BOARD

THE INDUSTRIES Development and Regulation Bill which will shortly be before the Parliament draws once more public attention to the economic ills that the country is suffering from and to the measures for their quick redress.

Plans for extension of production in industrial concerns as a whole are in the air but the target of production in existing undertakings as based on their installed capacity seems to remain unrealised. The industrial development is also of haphazard character bringing in duplication of work in many cases and does not take into consideration the usual factors that go towards success of industries.

Another outstanding fact that comes to light is that the industries which are granted protection or subsidy often do not fulfil the conditions under which the protection is allowed, and thus defeats the very purpose for which the protection is offered. There should be some machinery in operation which should see that the conditions laid down are fully complied with.

It is with the object of liquidating these and similar problems that the constitution of an Industries Board having authority to exercise control over industrial matters is under contemplation. The formation of the Board as envisaged in the Industries Development and Regulation Bill aims at bringing certain important industries under the purview of the Central Government from that of the State Governments for facility of control. The Board will consist of three persons having wide experience in industrial, commercial, technical, judicial matters, or in administration. The power of granting licence of new undertakings and capital issues will also vest in the Board which may lay down conditions regarding location, minimum size, etc. of the industries for which licence for starting is issued.

Among the provisions of the Bill which have met with the sanction of the Planning Commission, special mention should be made of the following. These speak for themselves.

(Continued on page 250)

-CURRENT TOPICS

THE SYMPOSIUM ON RUBBER

A symposium on rubber was lately held at the National Chemical Laboratory of India, in Poona. Rubber manufacturers, planters, chemists and scientists, whether intimately or remotely connected with rubber industry, were among those present in the conference. It is understood that the rubber section of the Laboratory which is actually working within the High Polymer section is carrying out at the moment nothing more than theoretical work. This unfortunate state of affairs is due to the fact that the equipment of the rubber laboratory is still very far from complete. Over and above this the staff is not sufficiently large to carry out all the routine connected with more practical work. Lack of equipment is particularly felt at the moment because the NCL does not possess laboratory mixing mills; moreover rubber manufacturing equipment and apparatus for physical testing such as tensile strengths, elasticity, etc. are not yet available. Thus, the work is limited to test tubes and chemical analysis, which is quite naturally

a great handicap. This is most regrettable after all the tall talks of industrial research of practical importance in National Laboratories recently constructed at huge expenses made by the Government.

While on the subject it may be pointed out that testing of rubber products in accordance with world-wide recognised standards is of first rate importance, and should be started in the Laboratory. The drawing up of specifications of raw materials is of some importance. The working out of manufacturing methods and special compounds might fruitfully be included in the programme of the Rubber Section of the National Chemical Laboratory. These are problems to small manufacturers who are not equipped with the requisite knowledge and the testing laboratory where they could carry out experiments. If they could turn to the NCL, they could progress and satisfy the ever-growing requirement of the customers. Such services could be rendered against definite fees which would cover the cost and solve the financial

(Continued from page 249)

The Government can investigate certain specified industries or undertakings in industries (a) which show a fall in production, a deterioration in the quality of the product, a rise in the price of production or which show tendencies in these directions, (b) which use resources of national importance, and (c) which are managed in a manner likely to harm the interests of the share-holders or consumers, and issue proper directions for rectifying the drawbacks; and can take under its own management undertakings which fail to carry out its instructions for improvement in management and policies.

These are wide powers indeed and are likely to have a most deleterious effect on the development of the country by putting new helter-skelter round the neck of industries, if abused in any way. Yet the necessity of a measure like this for the all-round and balanced industrial development of the country cannot be ruled out. We believe there are still men of strong moral calibre and administrative foresight who can offer correct directive

problem connected with such work. Again, great deal has been said about manufacturing all raw materials required by the rubber industry in India. Most of the materials can actually be made here without much difficulty and it is to be hoped that the NCL should lend a helping hand to any-one who is interested to take up a particular item. Improvement in manufacturing methods and consequent larger markets for finished products are also pre-requisite.

DIFFICULTIES OF THE SOAP INDUSTRY

The main difficulty soap industry is facing at present is the question of procuring adequate supplies of vegetable oils at world level prices. India which once was the biggest producing and exporting country in the world in oilseeds and oil, has taken a secondary place and excepting perhaps in groundnut oil and castor oil India is far behind the other producing countries. The production of coconut oil which is considered to be the main soap makers' oil is estimated to be 70,000 tons in India against the country's demand of 1,80,000 tons and India has to depend entirely on the import of 1,10,000 tons from outside, the main supplying centres being Ceylon, Penang, Singapore and Philippines. Government have of course realised this position as is proved by their placing the import of main vegetable oils such as coconut oil and palm oil under the O.G.L. without giving any consideration to the question of price. There is no comparison between the price we have to pay for coconut oil in India and the prices at which other importing countries are getting supplies. In the United Kingdom main oils and fats are imported on Government account and distributed amongst consumers at fixed prices. While negotiating trade agreements with producing countries they simultaneously fix the quantities to be supplied, as well as the price,

whereas in our case we have been able to procure very little quantity from outside with no fixation of price. Thus crude coconut oil is available in the London market at £. 126/- (approximately Rs. 1,700) per ton, whereas the price of coconut oil in the producing centre in India is ruling in the neighbourhood of Rs. 2,400-. The question of procuring supplies of vegetable oils at reasonable prices and arranging for its equitable distribution among essential consumers must hence be given top priority by the Government without which there is little hope for the sound survival of the industries depending upon coconut oil.

It may be added that the Government of India at present levy a standard duty of 42 p. c. and a preferential duty of 30 per cent. on the import of this commodity. The main supply centre for India is Ceylon with whom our Government have entered into a trade agreement. Ceylon Government levies an export duty of Rs. 325/- per ton, while our Government collects an import duty at an advalorem basis at 30 per cent. Thus more than 40 per cent. of the landed cost of coconut oil constitutes duties payable.

It may be mentioned here that the Government of India declared their policy of effecting a gradual reduction in the prices of essential goods and making available to the industry dependent on imported raw materials their requirements at as low a price as possible but when it actually comes to implementation of their intention, they only confuse the issue instead of appreciating particular aspects of any representation. It is imperative that the present high import duty on copra, coconut oil, palm oil, etc. should be removed as this is the chief factor which contributes to the high cost of imported oil. Soap makers should be enabled to get their supplies at prices

which they can afford. It may be added that the increased cost of oil is reflected on the higher cost of production and most of the manufacturers are working on the minimum scale to restrict their loss, there being no margin between the production cost and sale price. The result of this is more than 60 per cent. of the installed capacity is lying idle and if deterioration is to be stopped Government should adopt strong and effective measures.

FERTILISER FACTORY

The Sindri Fertilizer Factory, Asia's largest fertiliser factory is expected to start working in September. Finishing touches are at present being given to the plant. Of the four main engineering sections into which the factory can be divided, three sections viz., the Power, the Gas and the Ammonium Synthesis Sections are complete; in the fourth section viz., the vital Sulphate Section all that remains to be done is some last minute cabling and instrumentation work.

Sindri has a production target of 1,000 tons of ammonium sulphate daily or about 350,000 tons a year. This annual target is expected to be reached during 1953. The present demand for artificial fertilizers in the country is in the neighbourhood of 400,000 tons annually, but it is expected to multiply fast in the next few years as the Indian farmer is gradually awakened to the advantages of modern methods in agriculture. It is estimated that Sindri's maximum capacity would meet only one-seventh of the ultimate demand between two and three million tons annually. At present there are six small plants in the country, manufacturing ammonium sulphate. Their rated capacity is 80,000 tons, but production in 1949 was only 46,000 tons.

The Sindri factory has been planned in such a way that the outturn can be doubled by the installation of additional

equipment. Alternately, the factory can also be expanded to produce different types of products, such as nitric acid for India's chemical industry in general ammonium nitrate or nitro-chalk as fertilizers, etc. In the process of manufacture of 1,000 tons of ammonium sulphate per day about 900 tons of calcium carbonate sludge will be thrown up as a by-product. Plans are under the consideration of the Government of India for utilising this by-product as a raw material for a cement factory with an installed capacity of 300 tons per day of first class Portland cement. For its working, the factory would require each day 12 million gallons of water, 600 tons of coke and 600 tons of coal. The daily consumption of gypsum, the main raw material, would be in the neighbourhood of 1,800 tons. In addition, 400 tons of other raw materials would be required daily. The power plant would have an installed capacity of 80,000 K.Ws., part of which will be "exported" to Bihar for other industrial development. The gas plant at the factory would provide 33 million cubic feet of gas each day.

GLASS SAND IN BUNDI

The occurrences of glass sand have been located lately in the West and South-West of the Naini area along the G. I. P. Railway and an important deposit in the Bundi district of Rajasthan. The sand in all these areas occurs in Vindhya quartzites which have become friable at suitable places to give rise to the deposits. The reserves near Bundi in Rajasthan have been estimated at 1,62,000 tons and those in the Naini area at 110 million tons. Both the deposits are within easy reach of the lines of communication.

Technical details of the composition of sands discovered indicate their suitability in the production of various types of glass. In the sand in Naini area the silica content varies from 90.87 to 99.04 per

ent. The ferric oxide content is above .1 per cent. but less than 0.2 per cent. The latter indicates that while the sand may not be quite suitable for optical and the best crystal glass, it is good enough for plate glass, window glass, white bottles, etc. The grain size is very satisfactory. It is also possible, that some of the best quality sands from this area may be found suitable for the manufacture of optical glass after suitable beneficiation. It is further noted that the sand reserves in Bundi area are of a superior quality. The ferric oxide content is less than 0.02 per cent. which is within the specifications required for the manufacture of optical and best crystal glass.

LUMINIUM INDUSTRY

Protection to the indigenous aluminium industry was granted from the 15th May 1949, by means of a subsidy-cum-additional specific duty scheme. Subsequently, representations were received from the industry that the rates of subsidy granted were inadequate. The Government of India did not accept this contention but assured the industry that a review would be undertaken by the Tariff Board after a year's working of the scheme. Accordingly, the Board has made a review and submitted its report confirming that there is no case for alteration in the rates of duties on aluminium products as fixed under the protection-cum-subsidy scheme of the 15th May, 1949. Following the recommendation the Government consider it unnecessary to continue the additional specific duty on aluminium ingots, sheets, and circles, having regard to the increase in the price of imported aluminium, but consider that the existing protective duty of 30 per cent *ad valorem* should be continued until the 15th May, 1952. The Indian Tariff Board further recommended certain safeguards in connection with the payment of subsidy by Government to producers. The

Government of India have given careful consideration to the recommendation of the Board and have decided that, as a general rule, payment of subsidy by the Government of India to a Company shall be subject to the following conditions: (a) that the Company agrees to have on its Board of Managing Directors a representative of the Government of India as one of the Directors, with the same powers, privileges and functions as any other Director on the Board and (b) that the Company agrees to furnish the Government Director with such information in regard to the working of the Company as he may, from time to time, require.

KAPOK INDUSTRY

Kapok is found growing wild in forests and on waste lands and river banks in most parts of India. No attempt appears to have been made to grow these trees on a plantation basis excepting by the Forests Departments in Assam, Madras and U. P. It is, therefore, difficult to estimate the total number of trees in existence or of the area covered by them in the Indian Union. However, it is clear that the quantity of kapok floss collected in the country at present forms only a small proportion of the kapok actually grown. There is also no planned collection of kapok in India. It is collected by individuals for families in very small quantities in villages and sold to local village merchants or itinerant dealers. The prices paid to the collectors by village merchants are very low and their margin of profit ranges from 20 to 50 per cent. It is further estimated that the quantity of raw floss collected in India averages about 90,000 maunds and another 70,000 maunds are obtained from the adjoining districts of Eastern Pakistan. The quantity of ginned and cleaned floss averages 60,000 maunds per annum. Of the latter, about 25,000 maunds are used for internal consumption and 35,000

manure exported, the principal destinations being Australia and New Zealand.

Almost all the processing factories handling kapok are situated in Calcutta, which is the principal packing and exporting centre for this product. For many years Indian kapok was not considered as good as Java kapok for preparing life-saving appliances. It was only in 1919, when the Imperial Institute in London conducted certain comparative tests that it was found that Indian kapok was equal, if not superior, to Java kapok. These findings were subsequently confirmed by the experiments conducted by the Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta, and the Marine Surveyors of the British Ministry of Transport. But Indian kapok does not even today enjoy the reputation enjoyed by Java kapok. To a certain extent the reason for this is that Indian kapok is not generally as well graded as the produce from Java, and it is sometimes adulterated with cotton waste and akund floss which makes it quite unfit for use in the manufacture of naval life-saving appliances. With a view to developing export trade and establishing a reputation for quality, it is essential that no kapok from this country should be allowed to be exported unless it is pure and graded in accordance with the standard grades prescribed under the Agricultural Grading and Marketing Act, 1937.

PROGRESS IN TOBACCO RESEARCH

The nicotine sulphate which is used in the manufacture of insecticides is not now produced in India. The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research therefore intends to install a pilot plant for same. Experiments were previously made by the Indian Central Tobacco Committee to gauge the effect of farmyard manure, castor cake, and groundnut cake on the yield of bidi tobacco. On experimenting it has been found that of these organic manures, castor cake gives the best result.

the yield having risen in this case by about 50 per cent. over the unmanured field. Viewed from the standpoint of the nitrogenous doses administered by these manures, it is revealed that, the greater the nitrogen content of the manure, the greater would be the yield.

CELLULOSE-BEARING MATERIALS

Plants to undertake processing of cellulose pulp to make cellophane sheet and rayon is now well under progress. But the cellulose pulp itself is to be imported from abroad and there is practically no factory for its manufacture in India. It is learnt that a technical survey of the various cellulose-bearing raw materials found in India and other cotton linters has been carried out under the auspices of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. The pulp obtained from various types of wood, bamboos, reeds, straw and bagasse and some of the fibres available in different parts of the country have been chemically tested as regards their suitability for use in rayon manufacture. It is encouraging to know that pulps from bamboos, reed and bagasse have been found to compare favourably with American and Swedish pulps used by the rayon industry in those countries. Both the viscose and acetate methods have been applied for the purpose and the articles prepared from the sheet so obtained are found to be comparable in quality with those prepared from the imported pulp.

SUBSTITUTE FOR CEDARWOOD OIL

Saw mills engaged in the use of Deodard wood and having surplus of large quantities of saw-dust and shavings will be interested to know that experiments carried out at the Forest Research Institute, Dehradun, have shown that the sawdust and shavings yield by steam distillation an effective substitute for cedarwood oil which is a valuable insectifuge and is also a component of perfumes.

—THE ART OF PYROTECHNY

PYROTECHNY is the art of making fireworks. It is said to have had its origin in the East, firework displays being known in China for many centuries prior to their introduction into Europe, and in this day the Chinese and Japanese are still in the production of certain fireworks of great beauty.

Pyrotechny is essentially a handicraft; in other words, it is one of the very few remaining arts which is still carried on unchanged and revolutionised by the introduction of modern machinery.

Notwithstanding the great variety of fireworks produced by the many different kinds of compositions, they all have certain fundamental principles in common. All fireworks contain a combustible substance, and a source of combustion. The combustible, or fuel, may be either one or more of a great variety of substances, such as sugar, carbon, shellac, resin, pitch, starch, gum, ar, lycopodium, various picrates, particularly the potassium and ammonium sulphides, as those of iron, antimony, arsenic; various metals, as iron, copper, antimony, zinc, magnesium, and aluminium.

The supporters of combustion are usually certain oxygen salts such as chlorates and nitrates, which are readily able to supply their supply of oxygen to the combustible bodies. The pyrotechnist himself supplies the fuel with sufficient amount of oxygen salt to bring about the complete combustion of the former. The object of the firework maker is not to charge into the air the completely oxidised products of combustion, but rather to throw out a certain quantity of material which is in a condition to enter into active combination with the oxygen of the air and to carry on its combustion at the expense of this outside supply of oxygen.

The various mixtures, which are used to produce certain results have, in most cases, been arrived at, not by processes of scientific reasoning, but by purely empirical rules. Although the art of pyrotechny is regarded as a chemical one, it embraces many mechanical considerations and details which are of no less importance to the production of scenic displays than those which are more distinctly chemical.

RAW MATERIALS

The following are some of the most important materials employed in the manufacture of pyrotechny:

SALTPETRE

Saltpetre is the most important ingredient required in the manufacture of pyrotechny. The refined variety is suitable for this purpose.

Specifications for saltpetre to be used in fireworks making call for a salt that is clean, white and should be ground fine enough to pass through a sieve of 80 to 100 mesh. It should contain less than 1% of sodium, calcium and magnesium salts combined.

POTASSIUM CHLORATE

Potassium chlorate is a very necessary chemical used in pyrotechny as a supplier of oxygen. For firework purposes it should be white, contain less than 1% of sodium, calcium and bromine combined. It should be of the same fineness as saltpetre. It produces explosive composition with sulphur. Hence great care should be taken in its use.

POTASSIUM PERCHLORATE

This substance forms another useful addition to the pyrotechnist's art. It is less liable to decomposition than chlorate. Containing even more oxygen it can be substituted for the chlorate in most mixings and can be safely used in connection with sulphur.

SULPHUR

Sulphur is used almost exclusively in making fireworks. Specifications call for less than 1/10 of 1% of impurities and the finely ground should pass through a sieve of 120 mesh.

CHARCOAL

Charcoal used in pyrotechny manufacture should be produced fresh from soft wood. Its preparation is given separately. Charcoal that has a brown tint indicates incomplete carbonization and should be avoided. Also it should contain a minimum of grit.

STEEL FILINGS

Steel filings are used in various ways in producing scintillating effect in fireworks. The best steel filings for gerbs is known as needle steel. The steel filings from raw filing shops are quite good provided they are the result of hand filing and not the particles thrown off by emery wheels, which are useless for pyrotechnical purposes. When steel filings are added to gerb compositions, the saltpetre quickly attacks them, frequently causing the gerb to become quite hot. The steel is rusted and this action practically destroys its usefulness. To prevent this the steel must be coated in some way with paraffin that the saltpetre cannot attack it which may be accomplished as follows:—

In an agateware saucepan place a piece of paraffin and carefully melt it, heating as much as possible without permitting it to smoke. To this add clean steel filings, as much as the paraffin will thoroughly coat. There should be no surplus of paraffin but just enough to completely cover each filing. Shake the pan and stir frequently while cooling to prevent the filings from caking. Steel filings are also used for stars in rockets and shells.

Besides, the above ingredients the following materials sometimes come into the composition of important fireworks:

sodium oxalate, copper sulphate, pa green, dextrin, antimony sulphuret (black red arsenic, picrates, aluminium a magnesium powder, etc.

REFINING OF SALTPETRE

The saltpetre generally contains several impurities, the most troublesome of which are the chlorides. Since saltpetre is mainly utilized in the manufacture of gun-powder and fireworks, it is absolutely necessary to remove the objectionable chlorides, because they really absorb moisture and thus spoil the whole. The usual method adopted by the manufacturer is stated thus:—

In an iron pan 1050 lbs. saltpetre dissolved in 600 lbs. of water at a gentle heat; the solution is brought to boiling heat, and another 188 lbs. of saltpetre dissolved in it. When employing the proportions with saltpetre containing about 20 p. c. of chlorides the nitrate is dissolved completely, but the chlorides partially. The latter is fished out with a perforated ladle. If calcium or magnesium salts are present, potassium carbonate is added until a fair alkaline reaction has been produced. The hot clear liquor is diluted with 300 lbs. of water, a solution of 1 lb of glue dissolved in 44 lbs of hot water is stirred into it, and the whole brought to boiling again. The glue combines with organic substances present forming scum which rises to the surface, the liquor is allowed to settle for 24 hours in a warm place and the clear portion is run into flat copper coolers. As soon as the crystallisation begins, the liquor is constantly stirred, either by hand or better by machinery. Thus the potassium nitrate separates as minute, flowery crystals. These are drained off and cold water is sprinkled over them to remove all adhering mother liquor. This is usually done in vessels provided with a perforated false bottom, covered with linen. Finally the flowery particles are dissolved in a small quantity of hot water and then set aside to

als of saltpetre begin to appear. It is a valuable fertiliser.

PREPARATION OF WOOD CHARCOAL

As charcoal is the only product in view, the carbonization of wood may be done in pits or kilns and the volatile products go to waste. For this purpose the wood is heaped in a hemispherical pile around a central opening, and covered with earth and sod, leaving only a few small draught holes near the bottom. Then it is ignited at the centre and allowed to burn until the whole pile is on fire. A smouldering combustion takes place, largely at the expense of the oxygen and hydrogen of the wood fibre, forming water, carbon dioxide, and volatile hydrocarbons, which escape, the draught holes are then all closed and the heap is kept carefully covered until the fire ceases and the charcoal is cold.

FORMERS

All paper cases are rolled on formers of one kind or another. For rockets these may consist of hard wood sticks but better formers are made of light brass tubing with an outside diameter equal to the inside diameter of the case desired. They should be one to two inches longer than the intended case and fitted with wooden handles to enable them to be easily removed when the case is rolled.

Mines are rolled on wooden formers, the ends of which are turned down to convenient size to fit the hand. Roman candles are rolled on rods of machine steel while witch pipes and pin wheels are rolled on thin brass or steel rods. Lances are rolled on small brass tubing.

PASTE

Paste most suitable for Fireworks may be made as follows:—

Mix 4 oz. of wheat flour with 8 oz. of water and $\frac{1}{8}$ oz. powdered alum, rubbing until free of lumps. Pour this slowly with constant stirring into 16 oz. of boiling

water to which has been added 5 drops of carbolic acid, 5 drops of oil of cloves and 2 grains of corrosive sublimate. When cold it should be ready for use.

MEAL POWDER

Mount a 50 gallon wooden barrel on two uprights so that it will revolve freely on centres fastened to the heads. On one centre attach a crank and cut a hole (close by a suitable plug) into side of barrel for putting in and removing the necessary ingredients. Place in the barrel 300 to 500 lead shots or balls about one inch in diameter. When it is desired to make meal powder, put into the barrel a thoroughly mixed composition as follows:—

Saltpetre	15 lbs.
Charcoal	3 "
Sulphur, flour	2 "

Put the ingredients into the barrel and revolve it for about 500 turns, when the mixing may be complete. But more revolutions of the barrel may produce stronger powder. Great care must be exercised to see that no foreign matter such as nails, gravel, etc., find their way into the barrel as this might result in an explosion.

STAGES OF MANUFACTURE

For convenience the manufacture of pyrotechny may be divided into three stages.—

1. Preparation of mixtures.
2. Manufacture of cases.
3. Loading the cases.

PREPARATION OF MIXTURES

The mixtures used in fireworks are called compositions or fuses, and their preparation requires some care. In order to obtain good results out of the materials and also to avoid accident in handling explosive substances, a knowledge of chemistry is indispensable. Many mixtures also are liable to undergo chemical decomposition so that they can only be employed. When the firework is to be used within a

short time of its manufacture; other mixtures are liable to more rapid spontaneous decomposition resulting in the ignition and explosion of the materials.

Mixing is, therefore, considered the most important operation in fireworks.

In mixing on a small scale, round brass wire sieves are the best. For lances and the more particular work 22 to 26 mesh may be used while for plain making 16 to 18 mesh is suitable. If 25 lbs. or more of composition is to be mixed ordinary painted wash tubs are most convenient and the sieves should be made so as to just fit inside the upper edge of same while for mixings of from 100 lbs. up troughs are often used. For these, the sieves are made square and fit just inside the troughs, same as with tubs. Mixing machines are sometimes used for bright work or mixings containing no chlorate of potash but they are too dangerous for colours.

With the plain mixings, the coal is weighed first and put into the bottom of the tub; then the sieve put in place and the sulphur, saltpetre etc. pushed through it. When everything is sifted, bare the arms and mix well in every direction. Place the sieve on another tub of same size and sift from the first tub into the second one, a scoopful at a time. When all has passed through for the second time repeat once more into the first tub, mixing between siftings and after last sifting. For ordinary compositions this is sufficient but some mixtures are passed four or five times through the sieves.

In coloured mixings more care must be observed and each ingredient sifted separately the first time, except the shellac, coal, etc. which can be put right into the bottom of the tub. Never throw the chlorate of potash on the sieve at the same time with dextrine or other hydrocarbons but sift the potash first and add other salts one by one. Great care should be taken

never to let the fingernails strike the sieve while sifting as it is very easy to "strike fire" from such causes, with disastrous effect as sharp star compositions in a loose state are almost as explosive as meal powder. Special mixings will be described when we come to the compositions requiring them.

MANUFACTURE OF CASES

All kinds of fireworks require a case of some kind. A good case must be tightly rolled and almost as hard as iron. The best arrangement for case rolling is a sort of large desk made of tongue and grooved flooring tightly joined and firmly nailed to sills of about 2 inches thickness and tapering from 2 inches in front to 6 or 7 inches in the back so as to form a gentle rise from front to rear. According to the work to be done the rolling board may be made from two to four feet wide.

Most cases are rolled from strawboard. For rockets two or three turns of cartridge paper are used first, backed up by five or six turns of strawboard. The cartridge paper being waterproof swells and contracts but little in rolling while the strawboard, being absorbent swells considerably; therefore when the strawboard is rolled on the outside of the case, it contracts in drying and is shrunk on making a very firm case. The recently produced kraft paper makes an excellent case.

Owing to the great variety in size required, the cases are all made by hand. The tools employed are of the very simplest description, consisting of a wooden or metal roller called the "former" and a sort of wooden board with a handle on one side, known as the "rolling board." For the larger cases the paper is pasted over its whole surface, and rolled round the former, the operation being done on a narrow slate table. The rolling board is then passed rapidly over it a few times with a firm steady pressure. The former

then withdrawn, and the case stood on end until it is so far dry that it can be laid on its side without risk of its losing its cylindrical shape. It is then stacked in a chamber through which a current of hot air is circulating, in order to render perfectly dry. In many fireworks the cases have to be partially closed, or constricted near to one end. This is technically known as "choking." It may be effected in two ways, either by compressing the walls of the case to the desired extent, or by partially filling the mouth of the case with clay. When the first of these means is adopted, the operation is performed when the case is freshly made, and only partially dry. For small fireworks it is done by means of a hand lever made of two blades of steel, and screwed to the edge of the table. For larger cases a foot lever is employed.

When the construction is effected by means of a clay plug, the operation is performed at the time of loading.

For small cases the paper is pasted only along the edges, the former, in this case a thick metal wire, is placed nearly in the middle of the paper. One end is then folded over nearly to the other, and the double paper rolled over the former.

The cases may be closed at one end by folding the paper in upon the end of the former. These cases require no special drying chamber.

Besides cylindrical cases, there are cases made in the form of a sphere, known as "shells." These shells, which are constructed of various sizes, up to even 24 inches in diameter, are made by a process technically known as the "wetbroke" process. Brown paper of a specially good quality is thoroughly pasted on both sides; strips are then torn from the pasted length, and laid upon the inside of a hemispherical bowl or mould, the strips radiating upwards from the centre to the circumference; the ends lapping over the

edge of the mould; the workman continues this process until the desired thickness of paper is obtained. It is then removed from the mould and allowed to dry. These hemispheres are then placed in a lathe, and the rugged lips or rims carefully turned off. Two of these hemispheres are securely glued together to form the complete shell. These shells are destined to carry coloured stars and to be fired from a mortar; the mould in which they are made has therefore a slightly raised ridge running part of the way down. From the circumference, and producing a corresponding indentation or "dimple" in the shell, which allows of room between the shell and the side of the mortar for communicating the fire to the propelling charge below.

LOADING OF CASES

The loading operation varies in details according to the type of firework to be filled, but it may be divided into two parts, viz. loose filling and ramming. The apparatus employed in the first of these methods is a metal funnel of an elongated shape, and a wire, the operation being known as "wire and funnel" filling. The wire is usually square, and of such a thickness that it will just pass through the end of the funnel. The case to be filled, if a choked case, is placed upon a stand with its choked end fitted upon a nipple fixed for its reception; the stem of the funnel is then inserted into the open end of the case, and by drawing the wire quickly up and down the composition is pushed down uniformly into the case. When full to the required height the case is closed up. With small fireworks (such as squibs, etc.) this is done by firmly squeezing the end of the case with a tool known as the "closing in" machine, and finally dipping the end into a composition made up of glue and red lead commonly called "dip."

Long narrow cases are filled without the use of a stand. For wheels no special tools are required, the long narrow tubing wound by hand upon a small wooden disc, and secured by strips of tape or paper wound across. In the manufacture of crackers two special pieces of apparatus are required. The first is a rolling or flattening machine. The filled cases are passed between the rollers of this tool, and thereby squeezed flat, the pressure being carefully regulated to the required degree. The other tool is the bending machine. The cans are bent backward and forward by steel wires about the thickness of a stout steel knitting-needle, until the requisite number of bends is obtained; they are then pressed firmly down with a piece of wood, and removed from the machine. The bent case are then tied up into the familiar compact form with a suitable thread, and the ends primed in the usual way with touch-paper.

Of the second method of loading cases the composition is rammed in, viz. the Roman candle, in which the mixture is directly rammed, and the rocket, in which the mixture is malleted. The case of a Roman candle is straight or unchoked one. It is placed in a block and the projecting core exactly fits into the case.

A small quantity of finely-powdered and sifted clay is first introduced, and is then driven down by means of the rammer, a wooden rod which loosely fits in the case. By pressure the clay sets to a stiff mass. The case is next to be filled with the composition, and coloured stars, if required. Each layer of mixture is introduced in two quantities, and rammed down. Care is taken to regulate the charge of mixture, so that each star shall be blown to the same distance.

Rockets are loaded by the mixture being forcibly rammed into the case by a mallet, and as this firework is in some respects of a special construction a brief

description is given at the proper place to make it understandable.

ROCKETS

Rockets are perhaps the most popular article of the pyrotechnical craft. So much has been written about sky rockets that any general description would be superfluous. Suffice to say that rocket consists of a tube of paper, rammed with suitable composition, its lower end choked to about $\frac{1}{4}$ rd. the diameter of its bore and a hollow centre extending upward through the composition to about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch of the top. A stick is attached to the tube serving to balance it while ascending.

Rockets are fitted with cap containing the garniture of the rocket which may take the form of stars or other pyrotechnic effects, or a gun-cotton wad, or similar explosive to make a sound signal, or small cases, charged with picrate of potash, producing the well-known whistling rocket effect.

The cap is either cylindrical or in the form of a truncated cone, with a conical or other top. The cap is burst open and the contents ignited by an opening charge of powder lighted through a hole bored in the clay diaphragm above the heading, so that when the heading is burnt through the fire may be communicated to opening charge.

The body of the rocket is of paper tube constricted at the lower end either by squeezing and then tying with a ligature, or by means of a clay plug.

COMPOSITION

The following are good compositions for rockets of different sizes:—

	1 to 3 oz.	4 to 8 oz.	1 to 3 lbs.	4 to 8 lbs.
Saltpetre	18	16	16	18
Mixed coal	10	9	12	12
Sulphur	2	4	2	3

If on trial rockets burst add more coal if they ascend too slowly add more saltpetre.

In order to fill the body a conical mould is inserted through the constricted end, point upwards, and the propellant charge then added little by little and well malleted home. Considerable skill is required in doing this as the packing must be quite even if good results are to be obtained. When the propellant has been added the top is closed with a perforated clay plug through which a piece of quick match (touch paper) passes in order to fire the head, and conical mould then withdrawn. The head is another paper case containing a burster charge of gun powder and garniture in the form of stars, floating stars, or whistling fireworks, and is glued on to the body. The stick is then attached so that the rocket balances when supported about one inch from the base. It is fired by applying fire to the conical hole left in the case by the mould. The outrush of gases causes the rocket to ascend, and when at its maximum height the quick match causes the burster charge to explode, thus liberating the garniture.

TOUCH PAPERS

Touch paper is much used for igniting fireworks, and is made by brushing paper, usually blue in colour, or one side with a solution of nitre (half a pound to the gallon) and then drying. Slow match for pyrotechnic purposes is made by soaking blotting paper in lead nitrate solution ($2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per gallon) and, after drying, pasting the sheets together, usually so as to give six thicknesses. Pyrotechnic quick match, on the other hand, is made by impregnating lamp wick cotton with a smooth cream of hot starch solution and meal powder, and then dusting over with dry powder.

STARS

Stars are very similar in nature, but are contained in a rocket or shell, and only

liberated and ignited when the rocket or shell has reached its maximum height. They consist of fiercely burning mixture containing chemicals to impart colour to the flame. We now show how stars are made.

These require considerable care in preparations success depending upon the uniform fineness, the intimate union, and the dryness of the ingredients.

There are two types of stars, namely "naked" and "pill box" stars. The former is composed of a mixture of charcoal, sulphur, meal powder, and nitrate of a metal to impart the desired colour, the ingredients being mixed together with shellac, and then either moulded into pellets or spread out and cut up into cubes, after which the solvent is dried off and the stars loaded direct into the rocket. These stars should only be employed in fireworks of the smallest sizes, as they are very apt to crumble. In any case to avoid crumbling it is very important to use shellac or other binding material which is completely soluble in the solvent used, usually methylated spirit. As a rule no special device is used for igniting naked stars, ignition being brought about by the burster charge and for this reason they are almost invariably composed of nitrate mixture and not chlorate mixture. In any case a naked chlorate star in contact with meal powder cannot be used as it would mean having a chlorate in contact with sulphur.

Coloured rocket stars are also made by driving the coloured composition, slightly moistened with gum water into small cases which go under the name of pill-box cases. These are known as pill-box stars and are much safer than naked star. If the star is to consist of one colour only, these pill-boxes are open at both ends, and a piece of quick match is placed between the composition and the inside of the pill-box and allowed to project about half an inch beyond each part of it. When fired these

stars burn at both ends at the same time, and so produce a great amount of smoke in proportion to their size.

If it is required to make stars consisting of more than one colour, the pill-boxes are fitted open at one end only. The composition is thus prevented from burning at more than one of its surfaces at a time. These stars generally contain two colours: the pill-boxes are half-filled with one-coloured composition and the remaining space is filled with the other composition.

RED

Potassium chlorate	47 parts.
Sugar	21 ..
Strontium carbonate	22 ..

BLUE

Potassium chlorate	80 parts.
Sugar	50 ..
Cuprous sulphide	30 ..
Mercurious chloride	40 ..

GREEN

Potassium chlorate	13 parts.
Sugar	11 ..
Barium nitrate	15 ..
Mercurious chloride	11 ..

YELLOW

Potassium chlorate	59 parts.
Sodium oxalate	17 ..
Shellac	24 ..

Magnesium or aluminium powder is also sometimes added in the above in order to increase the brilliancy.

WHISTLING FIREWORKS

The peculiar property of potassium picrate to whistle while burning has been known for a long time and has been made use of for producing the amusing whistling fireworks. To make this article dissolve 1 lb. picric acid in the least possible quantity of boiling water, in a porcelain receptacle; add $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. potassium carbonate, little by little, stirring continuously. Then add 1 lb. powdered saltpetre. Stir thoroughly,

allow to stand for one hour and remove to a heavy piece of filter paper placed in a glass funnel where it can drain. When dry crush to fine powder with a wooden roller. Very small quantities should be handled at a time as an explosion will cause disastrous results. The dry powder may be rammed into tubes from $\frac{1}{4}$ " to $\frac{3}{4}$ " diameter and will produce the whistling sound when burned. Bamboo tubes are most effective.

Owing to the ease with which potassium picrate detonates whistles cannot be used in shells but small tubes $\frac{1}{4}$ " diameter and $2\frac{1}{2}$ " long when charged with the above composition may be placed in the heads of rockets or fastened to the outside and arranged to burn as the rocket is ascending. Attached to wheels they are quite amusing, but the most effective use for them is when a series of six or eight ranging in size from $\frac{1}{4}$ " to $\frac{3}{4}$ " diameter are set side like a Pandora Pipe and burned simultaneously.

ROMAN CANDLES

Roman candles are probably the most popular piece of fireworks made. On a small scale they are made entirely by hand that is, one at a time. To make these by hand roll the cases and have a lot of stars of different colours ready. Then make some candle composition as follows:—

Powdered saltpetre	18 parts.
Finely powdered charcoal	11 ..
Flours of sulphur	6 ..
Dextrine	1 part.
Water	1 .. or more

Mix all the solid ingredients well and sift three times. Then add the water and mix again until the whole lot is evenly dampened. Then force through a 16 mesh sieve into cloth bottomed trays and dry in the sun.

Now provide a ramming outfit consisting of a pin block, a rammer, a composition scoop, a clay scoop and a gun powder scoop.

Now place an empty can on the pin, pour in a scoop of clay and ram it firmly with a light mallet. Remove rammer, pour a scoop of gun powder on top of which drop a star and lastly, a scoop of candle composition. Ram with about six blows of a light mallet. Remove rammer and pour in another scoop of gun powder, another star and another scoop of candle composition, repeating this until case is filled to within 2 inches of the top. Remove candle and finish described under.

If the composition becomes so dry that it will not pack finely it should be dampened with a very little water. The stars should be hard and dry and free from stars which can be sifted out by shaking stars in a coarse sieve. The floor of ramming room also should be kept free from all accumulated composition to guard against accidents from friction of the shoes or otherwise.

LANCES

These are small paper tubes from $\frac{1}{8}$ " to $\frac{3}{8}$ " diameter 2" to $3\frac{1}{2}$ " long filled with composition burning different colours with a duration of one minute and used for producing the different designs used in fireworks exhibitions, such as portraits, mottoes, etc. The cases are rolled and rammed with funnel and rod, as previously described.

Some lance compositions are so light as to be difficult to ram. These should be slightly dampened first. Blue lances made with paris green and white ones using calomel are frequently used without priming as they ignite very easily.

A good lance should burn clear for one minute, without flaring or clogging up. All colours should burn off about the same duration. If a lance burns to one side it is often because the composition is not well mixed or because there is more paper on one side than on the other. They should have about three turns of paper all around.

LANCE COMPOSITIONS

	Parts	Parts
Potassium chlorate	16	16
Strontium nitrate	3	—
Strontium carbonate	—	3
Shellac	3	2
Lampblack	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$

GREEN LANCES

	Parts.	Parts.	Parts.
Potassium chlorate	7	16	—
Barium nitrate	7	4	4
Barium chlorate	—	—	5
Shellac	2	4	1
Calomel	—	3	2
Lampblack	—	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
Picric acid	—	1	—

WHITE LANCES

	Parts.	Parts.	Parts.	Parts.
Saltpetre	9	14	5	8
Sulphur	1	4	2	2
Antimony sulphide	2	—	—	—
Antimony metallic	—	3	1	—
Meal powder	—	—	1	—
Red arsenic	—	—	—	1

BLUE LANCES

	Parts.	Parts.	Parts.	Parts.
Potassium chlorate	20	16	12	—
Potassium perchlorate	—	—	—	24
Paris green	—	5	—	—
Copper sulphate	6	—	—	—
Copper ammonium sulphate	—	—	3	—
Copper ammonium chloride	—	—	—	6
Shellac	4	—	1	—
Stearine	—	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2
Dextrine	1	—	—	—
Calomel	4	3	3	—

YELLOW LANCES

	Parts	Parts.	Parts.
Potassium chlorate	16	4	4
Sodium oxalate	2	2	2
Shellac	3	1	1
Charcoal	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	—
Barium nitrate	—	—	1

TUBRI OR GERBES

Tubri or Gerbe is one of the most popular fireworks. It consists of casing of

mould of burnt clay. The case has two openings. One wide about 1 inch at the bottom and the other narrow like a pencil at the top. The former assists in filling up the mould with the composition while the other for kindling. When kindled a brilliant shower of sparks like that of a fountain emerges out with a great force and reaches a considerable height emitting dazzling light.

There are several varieties of gerbes and are named according to the nature of their displays.

A few typical recipes follow:—

I

Nitre	10 parts.
Sulphur	2½ "
Charcoal	2 "
Cast iron filings	6 "

II

Best crystals of potassium nitrate	26 parts.
Roll sulphur	10 "
Light and fresh charcoal	3 "
Fresh cast iron filings	19 "

Expose the ingredients in the sun to dry, then grind the first three substances separately in a mortar and pass through fine cloth. Weigh and mix. Now take the iron fillings free from rust and of the size of poppy seed—but the size may vary according to the shape and size of the mould used. Mix the whole and load the clay mould carefully through the bigger opening and press tightly, which is then plugged with hard mud. The smaller opening is then pasted on with paper which is ignited on firing.

CHANDRA MALLIKA

Nitre	10 parts.
Cast iron filings	4 "
Sulphur	2 "
Charcoal	1½ "

Expose the ingredients in the sun to

iron filings separately in a mortar and pass through fine cloth. Weigh and mix. Now take the iron filings free from rust and of the size of poppy seed—but the size may vary according to the shape and size of the mould used. Mix the whole and load the clay mould carefully through the bigger opening and press tightly, which is then plugged with hard mud. The smaller opening is then pasted on with paper which is ignited on firing.

HAZARI

Nitre	16 parts.
Cast iron filings	8 "
Sulphur	3 "
Charcoal	3 "
Proceed as above.	

JASMINE

Nitre	80 parts.
Sulphur	5 "
Charcoal	6 "
Cast iron filings	10 "

ROSE BUD

Meal powder	6 parts.
Saltpetre	2 "
Sulphur	1 part.
Charcoal	1 "
Steel filings	1 "

FLOWER POTS

Saltpetre	10 parts.
Sulphur	6 "
Lampblack	3 "
Steel filings	6 "

ELECTRIC TUBRI

In preparing this sort of gerbe the ingredients are generally of a quite different category. Instead of nitre, charcoal and sulphur which are used in making ordinary gerbes, use is made in this case simply of shellac of fine grade and chlorate of potash. For attaining success in manufacture it is desirable that the shellac should be reduced to powder and finally passed

ash is also sifted through a fine cloth. cautions should however be taken that ingredients do not come in contact with other substances particularly sulphur, otherwise due to explosion dangerous consequences may follow.

A couple of typical recipes follow:—

I

Chlorate of potash	16 parts.
Shellac	6 "
Magnesium	8 "

II

Chlorate of potash	16 parts.
Shellac	4 "
Aluminium	10 "

FLYING TUBRI

This should be prepared as fresh as possible. Otherwise, sugar being in contact with chlorate of potash for a good length of time is liable to get oxidised with the result that the Tubri is likely to burst and may not ascend to a great height. Grind each ingredients separately and sift through a fine cloth and then weigh out and mix.

ORDINARY

Chlorate of potash	10 parts.
Refined sugar	4 "

RED

Chlorate of potash	10 parts.
Refined sugar	4 "
Strontium nitrate	1 part.

BLUE

Chlorate of potash	10 parts.
Refined sugar	4 "
Copper sulphate	1 part.

GREEN

Chlorate of potash	10 parts.
Refined sugar	4 "
Barium nitrate	1 part.

YELLOW

Chlorate of potash	10 parts.
Refined sugar	4 "
Soda	1 part.

The ingredients are powdered separately, sifted, mixed thoroughly and then charged into tiny clay moulds.

SPARKLERS

The growing popularity of sparklers from day to day makes one think about its manufacture. But like other articles of commerce the details of this manufacture are not available. The following general process will serve the purpose with a little modification.

Powdered charcoal	25 parts.
Steel filings	30 "
Aluminium powder	15 "
Gum arabic	6 "
Saltpetre	5 "
Sulphur	2 "

First of all work up the gum with water into the consistency of mucilage, the other items except the steel filings are stirred in. The steel filings lightly coated with paraffin is finally added.

Then work the mixture up to the consistency of porridge.

ELECTRIC SPARKLERS

The principal stick consists of wire or thin twisted metal, part of which is covered with a composition containing steel filings.

Fine steel filings	12 parts.
Fine aluminium powder	1 part.
Potassium perchlorate	6 parts.
Dextrin or gum arabic	2 "
Water	q. s.

The steel must be protected from corrosion with a little paraffin. The gum should be made of the consistence of mucilage. Mix the ingredients thoroughly and add gum solution until a mixture is obtained that will adhere to the wires when they are dipped into it.

This varies in different sections and with different runs of ingredients. In practice, bunches of wires are dipped at once and slowly withdrawn in a current of warm, dry air which causes the mixture to adhere evenly.

A sparkler of great brilliance and which are every effective may be made as follows:—

Dextrin	3 lbs.
Water	12 pints.
Potassium perchlorate	10 lbs.
Aluminium powder (fine)	7 "

Take the dextrin add the same, little at a time to the whole water stirring continually so as to avoid lumps. Mix intimately the potassium perchlorate with finely powdered aluminium and add this to the gum solution, stirring until a perfectly smooth mixture is obtained. Wire of required size and thickness may now be dipped into it to the desired depth while it is contained in a deep vessel, and placed in a suitable rack for drying. It may be necessary to dip the sticks several times dependent on how much composition it is desired to have on them. In this case they should be dried with the composition end up, the first time so that much composition accumulates on the end beyond the stick.

POT-POTIA

This is a very amusing piece of firework. When scratched on the pavement it gives off a continuous series of little explosions.

Mix 5 kilograms of powdered gum arabic with 5 litres of water, adding water gradually with constant stirring. Then add 1½ kilograms of magnesium carbonate. Place this on a water bath with a thermometer arranged so that the temperature can be carefully observed and heat to 50°C after which add a mixture of 1 kilogram of white phosphorus and stir until entirely melted. Continue stirring while cooling to 25°C after which add a mixture of 2½ kilograms red ochre and 3 kilograms potassium chlorate and stir cautiously until a perfectly smooth product results after which it may be poured in paper moulds in the manner described below.

Secure a number of boards of 7 material and bore holes into them ¼" deep and 1¼" diameter. Turn up a puncher which will work easily in the holes. Cut some red tissue paper of good quality into circular pieces 2½" diameter. Lay them over the holes in board and punch in. Pour into those the composition and fold over the edges of the paper. Allow to set and when hardened they may be removed and thoroughly dried when they will be ready for use. In preparing this firework great care must be used to prevent accidents as the mixture containing phosphorus and potassium chlorate are liable to ignite on rough handling.

COLOURED FIRE STICKS

These consist of thin wooden sticks similar to applicators used by physicians applying iodine etc. to affected parts. They are dipped for half their length into coloured fire composition in a more or less liquid state.

One method is to melt one part of gum shellac in an iron pot. Stir in five parts of very finely powdered strontium nitrate. To keep this sufficiently liquid it must be kept quite hot by the use of a steam kettle. This is for red sticks. Another method is to dissolve the shellac in alcohol and add the strontium. The proper consistency of the mixture can be easily regulated by using more or less alcohol as required. When the sticks are dried they are ready for use.

Green is not so successfully made, barium nitrate being substituted for strontium. A little lampblack improves the burning but detracts from the colour, especially the green. The sticks are pushed into a groove in the bar.

RUBY AND EMERALD SHOWER STICKS

These are much more effective and are made in the same manner as above, using following composition:—

Strontium nitrate	6 parts.
Coarse aluminium powder	6 "
Potash perchlorate	2 "
Shellac	1 part.
Alcohol	q. s.

Dissolve shellac in alcohol and add the other ingredients, previously well mixed. Roll thoroughly to consistency of thick glue and dip sticks previously arranged in holder so that they may be placed in drying rack.

For green use:—

Aluminium powder	
coarse	6 parts.
Barium chlorate	4 "
Shellac	$\frac{1}{2}$ part.
Alcohol	q. s.

The Japanese make a similar article of twisted paper but this requires a great deal of practice to learn.

CHINESE CRACKERS

Chinese crackers are the interesting little articles of pyrotechnics. These are prepared as follows:—

The tubes or cases of these fire-works are $1\frac{1}{2}$ " long, $\frac{1}{4}$ " outside diameter and have a bore of $5/32$ ". They are rolled of a sort of coarse blotting paper. A small amount of gum water is used as a binder and the case is finished with one turn of very thin red, green, or yellow paper. They are rolled in lengths of one to two feet and then cut to the required size.

Now a block is prepared for gathering about 1000 of these tubes. For this purpose a piece of hard wood about 1" thick and cut into a hexagon is provided with pointed wood or metal pins set into the wood base so that the above amount projects and exactly $\frac{1}{4}$ " apart. A tube is now slipped over each pin until the entire block is filled. A piece of white paper is now pasted over the top of the bundle. When dry it is removed from the form and a piece of paper pasted on the other side when it is dried again. The under side is moistened at the edges and the surplus paper neatly rubbed off. When again dry

the upper side is moistened all over and the paper over the top of each cracker is pierced with a punch or round pointed stick so that they may be charged with the necessary powder and clay. Some operators hold several sticks between their fingers at one time so as to be able to punch several holes simultaneously.

A wooden board about one inch wider all around than the bundle of crackers and $\frac{1}{4}$ " thick with $\frac{1}{4}$ " holes bored through it, corresponding exactly in position with the crackers in the bundle, is now laid on a smooth board, covered with finely powdered clay which is pressed into the holes in it, with the hand, until it is firm enough not to fall out when the piece is lifted. The surplus is brushed off and it is placed over the bundle of crackers so that the clay filled holes are exactly over the openings in the tubes. A slight blow is usually sufficient to cause the clay to fall into the crackers. Any not falling out is pushed out with a stick. The bundle is jatted slightly against the table to make the clay settle. A similar operation is now performed with a thicker board containing slightly larger holes containing the powder charge after which the clay board is used once more as described above.

The top layer of paper is now moistened so that it may be entirely removed and the clay which has become slightly moistened as well, is gently pushed down with a suitable rammer. It is then dried in the sun. The bottom end is now carefully dipped into water, turned bottom up and the paper removed from this side also, the clay pushed down and pierced with an awl for the purpose of inserting the match of fuse. This is however not done until the crackers have been again dried in the sun. After the fuses are inserted the ends of the crackers are pinched around it, about $\frac{1}{4}$ " from the end, by a crimper or two blunt knives hinged together at one end and having a V. shaped notch cut out of the

centre of each blade, so that when two notches approach from opposite sides they pinch the cracker together and cause the fuse to be held in place. When they are now finally dried for the last time they are platted together so as to form the packs of commerce. The platting and wrapping of the packs is such a dextrous performance that it is useless to try to describe it as it is only acquired by many years of succeeding generations doing the same thing.

The following formulas are in use for making the composition used in Chinese crackers and flash crackers:

CHINESE FIRE CRACKERS

	Parts.	Parts.
Saltpetre	50	45
Sulphur	25	18
Charcoal	25	25
Chlorate of potash	—	8
Sand	—	4

MAGIC SERPENT

This remarkable substance consists of small pellets of sulphocyanide of mercury which has the remarkable property of swelling 25 to 50 times its original size when lighted, producing a long snake like ash. To prepare, make a concentrated solution of mercuric chloride and add little by little a solution of potassium sulphocyanide, stirring constantly. A greyish precipitate will be formed and when the last drop of sulphocyanide added no longer produces cloudiness permit the mixture to settle. Drain off as much as possible of the clear supernatant liquid, remove precipitate to a paper filter placed in a glass funnel and wash slightly. When thoroughly dry reduce to a fine powder. Now moisten very sparingly with a weak solution of gum arabic to which may be added a pinch of saltpetre and form into cones.

PYROTECHNIC MATCHES

Pyrotechnic matches are otherwise known as Bengal lights. They are made

burning. Green and crimson lights are the most common and favourite. During Ka Puja and Dewali festival, these coloured matches are extensively fired by the children in almost all parts of India as they form safe and pleasing fireworks for them. Although the demand lasts for few days only, the consumption of same considerably big.

The manufacture of pyrotechnic matches thus strictly forms a part of the fire-works industry. But it is allied very closely to match making in every particular of its manufacture. The box making process is identical with that of safety matches. The bottoms of the inner boxes, however are made thicker than those of safety matches.

SPLINTS

Splints used for the manufacture of pyrotechnic matches are made broader and flatter, and not square as those of safety matches. But they are equal in length and thickness to ordinary match splints. The flat sides of the splints permit of holding more composition and spreading of same on the flat sides to give a bigger flame at the expense of the minimum quantity of wood. The flat splints are manufactured by increasing the feed of the pile of veneer in the splint chopping machine on interchanging the ratchet wheel and varying the number of steps turned by the ratchet.

Paraffining is not required in the manufacture of pyrotechnic matches. The application of the composition requires two separate dips in two different compositions the first being allowed to dry up thoroughly before the next one is applied.

The composition for the first dip is for producing the coloured light while that for the second dip is for the match head to ignite the former. The coloured-light composition is applied about two-thirds of the length of the splint and the match head

For producing the green colour consist of the salts of barium while those used for the red colour are compounds of strontium. They are mostly of very high co-efficient of deliquescence and consequently free use of glue as the binding agent is undesirable, as the absorption of moisture in quantity does not permit of retaining the different ingredients of the composition in adherence amongst themselves and with the splint. Shellac dissolved in methylated spirit makes an efficient agglutinant for the purpose and the use of some varnish keeps off the moisture effectively.

TYPICAL RECIPES

The following recipes are reproduced here from the book entitled "Safety Matches" by Mr. K. C. Das Gupta.

RED LIGHTS

	I.	II.	III.
Potassium chlorate	40	20	15
Strontium nitrate	120	20	25
Sulphur	20	5	13
Lamp black	4	1	1
Chalk	—	1	—
Antimony sulphide	—	—	4
Glue	6	2	2
Shellac	8	2	3
Copal varnish	11	2	3

GREEN LIGHTS

	I.	II.	III.
Potassium chlorate	32	70	200
Barium nitrate	160	300	250
Sulphur	32	100	100
Lamp black	8	15	10
Barium chlorate	—	200	—
Glue	7	20	13
Shellac	10	25	28
Copal varnish	5	10	8

SIDE PAINTING COMPOSITION

The following are some typical formulae of side painting composition as recommended by Mr. K. C. Das Gupta in his book "Safety Matches".

	I.	II.	III.
Red (phosphorus)	40	30	64
Black antimony sulphide	35	40	64
Manganese dioxide	—	10	—
Chalk	2	—	7
Potassium dichromate	2	10	—
Glass powder	5	—	6
Asbestos powder	—	—	2
Glue	12	14	5
Gum arabic	—	—	14
Gum tragacanth	1	—	1
Dextrine	—	—	3
Water	75	80	100

GENERAL PROCESS OF MANUFACTURE

The splints having been ready the match head composition is prepared. For this purpose take the glue and soak same in two to three times its weight of water and dissolve by boiling on water bath to a clean viscous fluid stirring all the time. Pass this through a sieve and weigh and note the loss in weight. Take hot water equal to this loss and wash the glue pot and the sieve and the washings into the strained solution.

Take shellac in a separate pot and keep it soaked for a few hours in double its weight of methylated spirit and keep it covered airtight as much as possible. Stir well when the shellac has gone into solution.

When the glue and shellac are thus dissolved and ready, mix the two solutions together. Shellac solution should be added gradually and not the whole quantity abruptly into the glue solution. Stirring must be done constantly while so mixing, and care should be taken to prevent thickening. Lastly add the copal varnish into this mixture of solutions and stir to a homogenous consistency. Then add the dry chemicals and grind the whole batch well in a conical mill when the composition is ready for dipping.

On dipping into the composition they are dried in atmospheric temperature and fanning. The drying is completed in about 12 to 24 hours' time according to the efficiency of the drying arrangements. When thoroughly dried, they are again dipped into the safety match composition the usual way. The match composition is generally coloured red by the addition of Eosine and Rhodamine in very small proportions to the same rendering them of a form agreeable red tips. The match heads are then dried, the frames emptied and the matches are filled into boxes by machines in each. The boxes are then parcelled into dozen and packed into thin tin or zinc sheet cases containing 10 dozen in each when they are ready for the market.

BENGAL FIRE

Bengal fire is the simplest form of fireworks, and simply consists of a moderately slowly burning mixture containing suitable salts to impart colour to the flame, strontium and calcium being used to produce red, barium or copper for green etc. Many different mixtures can be used, of which the following may be considered typical:—

RED

Potassium chlorate	15 parts.
Strontium carbonate	15 "
Shellac	7 "

YELLOW

Sodium nitrate	70 parts.
Sulphur	20 "
Antimony sulphide	7 "
Charcoal, powdered	3 "

GREEN

Barium nitrate	66 parts.
Sugar	33 "
Shellac	1 "

BLUE

Potassium chlorate	45 parts.
Charcoal, powdered	5 "

Mercurious chloride	35 parts.
Shellac	5 "

CONCLUSION

The handling of explosives, naturally, is never entirely free of danger. No more so is electricity, gasoline and many other things in daily use yet many persons have devoted long lives to the making of fireworks without having an accident. Even with the greatest care, however, accidents will occur to both those employed in making fireworks as well as those burning them. It is here endeavoured to point out the most fruitful sources of accident though obviously it is impossible to foresee every instance in which some carelessness or unknown factor may bring on disaster.

First, always keep separate places, a considerable distance apart to be used for making so-called "plain mixings" as rocket romancandle and gerbe composition containing sulphur, and the coloured mixings containing chlorate of potash. Separate sieves and utensils of every description must be employed and those working in the "plain" sections of the factory must not go into the rooms of those in the "coloured" sections.

Second, keep in mind that very slight friction will sometimes start the burning of mixtures of finely divided chemicals. Star composition has been known to explode while being sifted, by scratching the brass wire sieve bottom with the finger nail, while rockets have taken fire from the brass solid rammer striking the top of the spindle while ramming.

Third, finely divided metals, when in contact with chlorate of potassium sometimes take fire suddenly. While fortunately this is seldom the case it must not be lost sight of. Even steel filings and iron borings frequently become quite warm when mixed with saltpetre etc. and rammed

from this action. The prevention of this has been explained under "Steel Filings".

Employees in the mixing and ramming rooms of factories should be required to wear rubber shoes whole at work and a constant source of danger is the carrying of matches. This cannot even be controlled by requiring the employees to change their clothes in the factory before going to work and having them wear garments without pockets as they will sometimes slip out for a smoke during rest hours and have matches secreted somewhere about their persons.

Small buildings should be supplied, about 12 feet square and not less than 50 feet apart all those engaged in mixing and ramming operations as well as for those making stars and as much as possible have one person to a room. Doors should be placed at both ends of work rooms and

should always open to the outside with no fastenings on the inner side but held closed, if desired, by spring hinges. Fire buckets, inspected daily should be on each buildings, supplemented by fire hose conveniently placed for emergency.

The most successful method of reducing the liability of serious accidents to a minimum is to keep at all times the least possible amount of composition on hand in the work rooms and to remove to storage of finishing rooms all rammed articles as quickly as they accumulate.

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—PHOTOGRAPHY AS A HOBBY

PHOTOGRAPHY in these days finds its place in every department of life. It has always provided a thrill for the beginner. It is probably the same thrill that comes from the ability to make pictures, and which inspired primitive man to the desire for personal records of incidents, are all contributive to the wide use of photography. For the beginner there is the delight of seeing his first successes, negatives processed and prints made under his own hand, or it may be the scarcely lesser thrill of opening the wallet containing the results of his first exposures, because either through disinclination or force of circumstances he places the exposed film in the hands of those who do the mysterious "rest".

In carrying out the operation the photographer must equip himself with a range of subjects being photographed.

TAKING AN EXPOSURE

The key to successful photography lies in correct exposure. The best camera, the finest quality of materials, and the highest skill in developing and printing are of little use unless the photographer realizes the importance of the part played by correct exposure.

By correct exposure we mean the period of light action on the film by the lens and shutter. It is necessary for the film to have sufficient exposure, but this must not be excessive. If the exposure is too short and "under-exposure" results, the negative will be thin and transparent and there will be no detail in the darker parts of the subject, resulting in black paper shadows in the print on the other hand if the exposure is excessive the result will be a negative in which the lights and shadows of the subject will not be seen in their

the print will lack what is termed "spark and vigour".

To explain this in another way, if subject is one composed of strong highlights such as the sky and deep shadows under trees, it may be found that the sky needs $1/100$ th part of a second, with deep shadows may need a whole second. The other parts of the subject will need exposures between these two extremes.

If the exposure of $1/100$ th of a second is given it is obvious that the sky will be recorded and also some detail in the higher lights, but there will be no detail in the shadows, and these will be clear. If the exposure of one second is given the shadows the sky will be over-exposed by 100 times.

Fortunately for the photographer there is another factor entering into the matter. This is the properly described as latitude of the film. It means in practice that although the sky might have received 100 times the exposure that it should have, it is still possible to record it in the negative. Plates or films respond better to over-exposure. The photographic image depends upon the light action by exposure, as provided that the action is not excessive a good negative is still possible. No chemical process can supply the deficiency of the image due to under-exposure.

With a film having a reasonable margin of latitude it is not a difficult matter to secure good negatives. The use of some form of exposure-meter or calculator is not involved. This is simply a means of arranging the factors controlling the exposure in their proper relationship, and after so doing the exposure is indicated.

PROCESSING

The exposed films or plates are, in

It is in any way possible in favour of doing the work at home. It is safe to say that no camera user who has a keen interest in his hobby is going to be satisfied with the work of other not because the resulting prints lack the technical quality, but because there is great satisfaction in doing the work for himself.

One of the reasons why many photographers place their exposed plates and films in the hands of the trade for processing is because the operations involve a considerable amount of time. Actually this is not the case, for while the operations may be conducted in an unbroken sequence except for intervals while the negatives and prints are drying. In order to show the rapid way of developing and printing films and plates we are describing the simplest and easiest processes in the development.

The process of development is that by which the action of light upon the sensitive film productive of an invisible or latent images is revealed by chemical action as a negative. This is done in the first stage by the use of a solution consisting of several elements known as developer. There are many different photographic developers each with advantages to offer. These include Pyro, Metol, Hydroquinone, Amidol, Para-amido-phenol, and Glycin. These are used in conjunction with other chemicals.

(1) Alkali, which accelerates the action of the developer.

(2) Preservative, sulphite, by which the developer is preserved while in solution.

(3) Restrainer, potassium bromide, by which the activity of the developer is controlled.

There is no need for the inexperienced photographer to investigate the claims of different developers. He is advised to purchase any of the well-known proprietary developers and to use it in accordance

with the maker's directions. It is certainly the best plan for the beginner.

The following methods of development may now be considered with their respective advantages.

TANK DEVELOPMENT

This method offers in some cases the important advantage of dispensing with the dark-room. The plates or films are placed in the tank, and the developer permitted to act for a certain time according to its strength, the type of plate or film, the negative required and the temperature of the solution. These times are given in the form of a table with the developer used.

It is admitted that the tank method gives the photographer a high percentage of successful negatives for the simple reason that it eliminates guesswork as to how far to carry development. The operation is reduced to an exact science. Tank development offers the advantage that the negatives are not handled more than is necessary, and this means freedom from the risk of mechanical defects.

TANK DEVELOPMENT IN PRACTICE

This is the most simple system of development, and at the same time is the easiest for the beginner. Modern tanks are easily loaded, and once the plates or films are in the tank the rest of the operations can be carried out in daylight. This system has been brought to perfection within recent years with regard to the design of the tanks for easy loading, and there is considerable improvement in the developers that are suited for use with them.

It was argued that tank development permitted the photographer no control over the result in the case of under or over-exposure. There was the belief, which died hard, that alteration of the composition of the developer allowed of incorrect ex-

posure being compensated for. Expert investigation has dispelled this idea. It is safe to say that a fixed period of development is one which, while based upon the assumption that a correctly exposed plate or film needs development for a fixed period, will allow the best to be made of under or over-exposure.

The fixed period of development is based upon the negative necessary for a given printing process. This is determined by the maker of the developer who in his experiments finds that for an "X" plate or a "Z" film the time of development is sixteen minutes at 65°F. This presupposes a correct exposure. It will also follow that the period of development which is correct for the film which has had correct exposure is also the best for those which have been incorrectly exposed. This was the system devised by Messrs. Kodak for use with their film tank designed to eliminate the need for a dark-room for the amateur photographer.

For the benefit of those photographers who have never watched a negative develop, it may be explained that the rate of development depends upon the exposure of the film. The under-exposed film develops slowly because of the deficiency of light action, the over-exposed plate or film "flashes up" in the developer instead of the high lights appearing first and the rest of image gradually revealing itself. It happens that the under-exposed negative is developed too far in the hope that a little more detail will be brought out, while the over-exposed negative is "rushed out" of the developer before it has had long enough to secure sufficient density. If this happens the negative is weak and lacking in the necessary contrast.

Therefore a fixed time of development based upon correct exposure avoids the risk of the under-exposed negative being

image being removed too soon. While a fixed period is in the nature of a compromise it is the best course, and the choice of the correct developer time gives the best negative, and the careful choice of a printing paper makes a good if not a perfect photograph.

For the loading of a developing tank the reader is referred to the directions issued with the apparatus, and care must be taken to see that these are followed exactly. If this is not done there is the risk of the developer not reaching the film properly, or in the case of a tank of the daylight-loading variety which is in the nature of a mechanical device, there is the risk that the film may not enter the tank in the proper way, and in this case it is likely to be spoiled.

It may be thought from the first reading of the instructions that the manipulation of the tank is a difficult matter, but this is not so, and after the instructions have been read through once or twice the operation of the mechanism will become clear. After one or two films have been developed there will be no need to refer to the instruction sheet. Plate tanks are very simple to use, the plates being dropped into the groove which hold them. Film pack, or cut film exposures, are placed in the special holder which are provided for them.

Apart from the loading of the tank there are several other points which bear upon successful work. The developer should be poured into the tank so that the plates or films are covered as quickly as possible. Failure to ensure this may result in irregular development and marks on the negatives. Some workers advise that the tank should be filled with the developing solution first and the plates or films lowered into it. It is important that the solution should be constantly agitated during the period of development or the same defect

are a problem, as they result in clear circular spots on the negatives. They are often the result of too vigorous shaking of the developer either in its bottle or in the tank. In some cases the design of the tank makes for the formation of air bells and patches of irregular density on the negatives, but this was more the case with some of the older patterns, where there was insufficient space between the negatives with plate-tanks which carry the strip in a celluloid "apron" for development. Modern tanks are superior to those of the older type and give no trouble in this respect provided that they are properly used.

The time of development is controlled by several factors: the type of film whether it needs a long or a short development, the temperature of the developer and its working strength, and, finally, the type of negative that the photographer requires for the printing paper to be used. This is all decided for the photographer by the makers of the particular developer used, and the photographer is advised to use one of the several proprietary developers which are suited to tank development. This resolves the problem of development to finding the group in which the plate or film is placed, and it will be found that at the temperature at which the developer is working the operation will be complete in a given number of minutes.

Care is necessary to ensure that the temperature of the solution is that recommended by the maker. It must not be lower than 50°F., because some developing agents lose their power at a lower temperature. On the other hand, a high temperature is to be avoided as this will cause a softening of the gelatine film, and cause the "grain" of the negative to be coarser.

FINE-GRAIN DEVELOPMENT

The user of a "miniature" or small camera needs to be more exacting in his requirements with regard to a developer for his films than is necessary with negatives

of larger size. It must be realized that the small negative is made with a view to enlargement, and it is essential if the large prints are to be satisfactory that the negative should be of the correct type. It is also very important that it should be of "fine grain". The photographic image is composed of very minute silver grains suspended in a film of gelatine. The size of these silver grains and the avoidance of their tendency to "clump together" determine the quality of an enlargement. The maker of the film does his best towards the provision of the essential condition, and modern films are a great advance over those of a few years ago in this respect, but in spite of the production of fine-grain film the photographer has to do his part with regard to exposure and development. A fine-grain developer is essential in the case of small negatives from which enlargements of great size are wanted. There are several excellent fine-grain developers, and some of super-fine grain. These should not be used by the beginner as their use involves extra exposure of the film, which is not always possible.

The fine grain developers supplied in tins ready to be dissolved for use by almost all photographic manufacturers should be used.

Fine-grain developers also give the right type of negative for enlargement. For this the negative needs to be of what is termed a "soft gradation" type. It means that the black silver as representing the high lights of the subject must not be opaque, or the light from the enlarger will not penetrate the density, and the print will show white paper devoid of any suggestion of light action.

In this connection it might be pointed out that in some circles such attention is devoted to the subject of grain that the impression may be conveyed that the problem is difficult of solution. To put this in another way the impression is given that

It is more difficult to secure reasonably fine grain in miniature negatives than it actually is. The "grainless" emulsion has not yet been produced, but with modern films and fine-grain development no trouble will be experienced if care is exercised.

Grain, apart from the film, will be sufficiently fine to permit of considerable enlargement if the following points are observed:

- (1) The developer should be used at the strength recommended by the makers.
- (2) The solution should be used at 60° to 70°F., and no higher, and fixing-baths should be of the same temperature as the developer.
- (3) The developer should not be used to the point of exhaustion.

It is necessary to use a thermometer in order to ensure that the temperature is correct. When the subject is one that it is thought will demand a very large picture, one of the specially fine-grain films of lower speed should be used. High speed in a film is obtained at the expense of fine-grain.

The commercial fine-grain developers may be used for three or four films in succession or at intervals if properly stored. It is false economy to overwork the developer, because this will certainly involve some loss of quality.

FIXING

The next operation is that fixing the film. This is the removal of the silver that is seen in the creamy appearance on the back of the negative. If the film is examined in very weak light it will be seen that this creamy appearance begins to disappear, and in few minutes the negative will be fully transparent.

If the tank is made of metal an acid fixing-bath must not be used, as the acid would attack the metal plating. The only safe course if the tank contains metal parts

that the plates or films be removed from the tank after the developer is washed from the film, and fixed in a separate vessel.

The tanks made of bakelite or similar material are unaffected by the chemicals used.

It is very important that fixation should be complete. The creamy appearance of the negative is a partial guide, but the bath should be allowed to act for at least as long again. Films and plates vary with regard to the time taken for the solver to fix out with some it takes place more rapidly than others. An acid fixing-bath with a hardening element is to be preferred to a plain hypo bath, and most photographers use the acid bath. If the photographer prefers to make up his own fixing-bath the following is a good formula:—

Hyposulphite of soda (hypo)	4 ounces.
Water	20 "

The hypo will dissolve more readily in warm water, but it must not be used until cold.

An acid fixing-bath is made up as follows:—

Hyposulphite of soda (hypo)	8 ounces.
Potassium metabisulphite	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.
Water	20 ounces.

In hot weather it is a good plan to use an acid fixing-bath which exerts a hardening action on the film. It will prevent the possibility of frilling, and assist in avoiding mechanical damage to the film in its wet state. The bath is made up as follows:—

Hyposulphite of soda	1 lb.
Potassium metabisulphite	1 ounce.
Chrome alum	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Water	40 ounces.

To make up this solution the hypo is dissolved and the metabisulphite added. Hot water should be used, and the solution

added in ten ounces of water and added to the remainder of the bath.

If the photographer does not wish to go to the trouble of making up his own solutions the acid fixing salt, sold by all photographic dealers, will meet the case.

When the fixing is done in the tank, washing may follow without the removal of the film. This will serve to clear the tank of hypo, and it will only need a rinse with warm water before using again. Many photographers make a practice of developing, fixing and washing in the tank, and they do not see the negative until they are ready for drying. The beginner will probably not be able to resist the temptation to see what his negatives are like for as long as this. If the film is developed in a tank which holds it in the grooves of a spiral, it will not be possible to reinsert the film without risk of damage. Plates and cut films, and the films developed in a tank which holds them in a celluloid "apron", can be inspected and returned to the tank quite easily.

WASHING

This is a mechanical operation but one that is too important to permit of carelessness. Films that are developed and fixed in the tank are best washed in the same tank, and this also applies to plates. Roll films that are developed in the strip should be washed by pinning the ends together with the celluloid side or the back of the film inwards. The film is then placed in a large bowl or similar vessel. Films if not unrolled as described will coil up, and the water has little effect on the negatives on the inside of the roll.

Efficient washing does not demand a large quantity of water; in fact, those workers who use the most water are not those who do this part of the processing most effectively. The point is the hypo is easily removed from the film; it is heavier than the water and sinks to the bottom of the

vessel. It must be removed or the film will be simply subjected to a prolonged soaking in what is a dilute hypo solution.

Running water is preferable to washing in a series of changes, but the hypo must be drawn off from the bottom. If the water is simply allowed to pour in at the top of the tank or vessel and runs over, this is not removing the hypo-charged water at the bottom. In these cases it is necessary to remove the film, allow the surplus water to drop or, remove the water from the bottom of the vessel, preferably by rinsing it, and then to replace the film in fresh water.

The same result is obtained by giving the film six or seven changes of water, each change lasting from four to eight minutes. A series of short changes of water is far more effective than indiscriminate use of running water or prolonged soaking; the latter especially is to be avoided as it has a bad effect on the film.

DRYING

After washing the surface, the negative (in the case of films the back or celluloid side as well) should be rubbed lightly with a tuft of cotton-wool. This will remove any deposit that may have accumulated from the washing water. It is sometimes necessary to give negatives a final bath of 1 per cent. acetic acid, in order to remove the lime salts present in some water, and which dry in the form of scum on the film and are difficult to remove afterwards.

Plates or cut films are given two minutes in the acid solution. Films are see-sawed three times through. A final rinse of five minutes should follow, after which the negatives are surface-dried either with a soft chamois leather or "viscose" sponge and set up to dry.

Plates are best stood on a shelf in a warm room. Films are best pinned up to a shelf where they will not come into con-

act with anything while drying. In the case of roll films it is a good plan to attach weight to the lower end of the strip while drying, as this will help in counteracting the tendency of the film to curl.

While a warm room is advocated, heat must not be applied as this will cause the gelatine film to melt, while it may affect the "grain" of the negatives adversely.

AFTER DRYING

Photographic negative are necessarily delicate and easily damaged by misuse. After drying they should be put away from dust, damp or careless handling. Plates may be stored in the boxes in better still in the commercial negative albums sold for the purpose. Miniature negatives are best kept in the strip or cut into short lengths of four or six.

PRINTING

The making of the negative is only a stage in the production of a photograph, although a very important one. The quality of the negative has a considerable effect on the print, for not only is it a fact that the perfect print can only be made from the perfect negative, but also the size and the type of print are limited by the perfection or otherwise of the negative. Moreover, the negative must be of the right type for its particular purpose, for while a negative may be described as "good", it might also be added that it may be limited in its range.

In these days with the wide range of printing papers obtainable it is possible to make passable prints from almost any negative, but these are often imperfect judged from the more critical standards. The best photographs are those made from correctly exposed negatives in the first instance and developed to suit the printing process to be used.

For an amateur photographer the print-

In this method the paper to be printed is expected in contact with the negative. This means that the print will be of the same size as the negative. There is more scope when contact prints with regard to the method of printing to be used. Prints may be made upon gaslight or any of the wide range of bromide papers, or they may be made by daylight upon any of the printing out papers and self-toning papers.

Contact printing can be done in a printing box which is fitted with an electric light for exposure. A glass top is fitted to take the negative, and this is laid in contact with the printing paper on the glass the light switched on by pressure of a back board, making the exposure. This is both rapid and convenient. Printing boxes of this type for lighting from the mains as well as from a battery may be bought from photographic dealers.

If the printing box is not considered necessary a printing frame must be used. For plates this should be of the same size as the negative for plate negatives, but for films it is convenient to have the frame size larger than the negative, especially if it is desired to give the print a white edge for which a mask to protect the edges from light action is necessary.

For making prints by contact on bromide paper the test strip is advised, the printing frame being placed at a fixed distance from the light and the frame gradually uncovered so that the negative receives exposure of five, ten, fifteen and twenty seconds.

The printing lamp should be switched to operate independently of the dark-room light, and it should not be too strong, a 25 watt pearl lamp is quite powerful enough.

PRINTING WITH GASLIGHT PAPERS

Contact printing is advantageous done by gaslight papers because they are less sensitive and dark-room is not neces-

portable lighting conditions of an ordinary room. These papers have not the need of bromide papers, and print making rather a longer process because longer exposure is needed for exposure. On the other hand, prints on these papers develop more rapidly.

Gaslight papers develop more rapidly in bromide prints. The image in the former case appears very quickly, and a properly exposed print is fully developed in less than a minute. The image appears, and the case of a correctly exposed print it will seem to stop, and the print is then removed and placed in the fixing-bath. If the print is over-exposed the picture will "wash up" in the developer and darken over rapidly. If it is rushed off the developer in the hope of saving it the colour will be of a sty black instead of the cold black.

It is important that the print should be removed between developing and fixing, otherwise stains may appear that are difficult to remove. Care must be taken not to use the developer to the point of exhaustion, and to keep prints under the solution. If the developer is exhausted the prints will be of poor colour and liable to become stained, and the same happens if the film is exposed to the air in the fixing-bath, especially before the silver has been fixed out.

Thorough washing is also necessary. Prints on gaslight paper may be regarded as reasonably permanent, provided that they are properly fixed and washed free from hypo.

Finally, with regard to the permanence of both bromide and gaslight prints, it may be stated that efficient fixing is of greater importance than washing.

A small quantity of hypo in a print does little harm until it begins to decompose through the action of damp.

Provided that the print is stored under dry conditions it will last for many years.

NEGATIVE FAULTS AND THEIR REMEDY

Until experience has been gained there may be failures, and it is well that the cause of these should be ascertained with a view to prevention in the future. The following are the failures most commonly met with.

Under-exposure.—This is indicated by the fact that the image is a long time appearing. After development the negative is "thin" and transparent and there is little or no shadow detail, it being almost clear film.

Over-exposure.—The negative is dense and the shadow detail is almost as strong as the high lights. The sky will be thin due to excessive exposure.

Under-development.—A. Following correct exposure. There is a mere trace of image.

Remedy—Intensification.

B. Following under-exposure. A weak image, shadows transparent.

Remedy—Intensification effects slight improvement.

C. Following over-exposure. The negative lacks contrast, the shadows almost as strong as the high lights.

Remedy—Slight reduction makes partial improvement.

Over-development.—A. Following correct exposure. The negative shows detail in high lights, but they are too opaque to print. The shadows show too much detail.

Remedy—Reduction.

B. Following under-exposure. The negative shows detail in the high lights and shadows, but the former are much stronger than should be the case. It must be noted that the effect of over-development may be compensated for by the choice of a printing paper of a different grade, and what may be an over-developed negative for one paper may not be so for another.

Remedy—Reduction effects slight improvement.

C. Following over-exposure the negative lacks "contrast" or proper balance between the high lights and shadows, which results in a flat print which fails to give the gradations of the subject.

Remedy—Reduction.

OTHER DEFECTS IN NEGATIVES

White Circular Spots (small).—These are termed "pinholes," and are generally caused by minute particles of dust on the film which prevent light action.

May also be caused by undissolved particles in the developer becoming attached to the film immediately the developer is applied and preventing action.

White Circular Spots (large).—These are generally caused by air bells becoming attached to the film and preventing the developer from reaching it. They are removed by spotting the negative with opaque colour.

Scratches.—These are serious defects, and especially in the case of small negatives. The cause should always be traced with a view to future prevention. Film sometimes have scratches running across the negative in the direction in which the film has been wound. These are termed "telegraph-wire scratches." There are several possible causes. The first is dust or particles of grit on the surface of the back frame of the camera across which the film travels, or roughness on some part of the apparatus over which the film runs. These are sometimes met with in film-pack negatives.

Winding the film with the camera closed will also cause scratches across the negatives. With some cameras there is very little space between the film and the folded bellows, and if the film is wound

Twisting the film on its core in order to exclude light is a practice of some workers, and is to be deprecated. A good camera will ensure that the film is tight enough, and if the spool is sealed after exposure, and not subjected to the action of strong light, there is no fear of fogged negatives.

SCRATCHES ON THE WET FILM

Scratches on the film while it is in wet state are easily recognized, and there is no need for them provided that the film is used carefully. Roughness on the surface of the developing tank or the washing vessel will cause scratches on negative and also fine particles of grit on the surface of the sponge of chamois leather used for drying the surface of the film after washing, previous to drying.

INTENSIFICATION AND REDUCTION

It will be realized that if the photographer has devoted a reasonable amount of care to exposure and development should not be necessary to apply an chemical process to the negative with a view to partial compensation for shortcomings in one respect or the other. With the wide range of bromide and gaslight paper it is possible to do as much or even more than can be done by chemical after-treatment and without the risk that is inevitable when a negative is rewetted.

The two processes by which a negative is modified are known as intensification and reduction. Both are chemical processes, the one adds to the density of the image already produced, the other reduces it.

Intensification will be considered first. There are several methods, but the objection to them is that they involve the use of highly poisonous mercuric salts and for that reason they are not advocated. The best intensifier for amateur use is the

tion of bichromate of potash, or hydrochloric acid. Actually chromium is added to the silver image of the negative. Washing follows and the negative is then placed in a non-staining developer. This method is simple and effective and avoids the use of highly poisonous chemicals. It should be realized that the effect of intensification is strengthened the image already there. It will not reveal any image not produced owing to deficient light action.

The following is a good formula:—

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------|
| A. Potassium bichromate, | 1 oz. |
| Water | 20 " |
| B. Hydrochloric acid | 2 " |
| Water | 20 " |

For use take equal parts of each and a like quantity of water.

Intensification to be successful requires that the negative should be well fixed and thoroughly washed. Neglect of this will cause stains which are not easy to remove. The process may be carried out after the final washing, and this is the best time to do it as the negative responds better and the risk of rewetting the film after it has once dried is avoided. If the film has been dried it should be soaked for twenty minutes before bleaching.

The solution prepared, the plate or film is placed in a clean dish and the solution poured on. The dish should be rocked. The film will be seen to bleach to a yellowish brown colour, and if the negative is examined against a dark object the picture will be seen as a positive (print). The operation should be carried on until the full positive is seen. This takes from three to five minutes. The operation should be carried out in subdued daylight or artificial light, not in strong daylight.

The negative must then be washed until it is free from the yellow stain. This is important and the bichromate stain is persistent. If it is desired to finish the negative quickly a few grains of potassium

metasulphite may be dissolved in two or three ounces of water and applied to the negative. This will remove the stain at once.

After the yellow stain has been discharged the negative is placed in a non-staining developer. It will darken over almost at once, but the developer should be given full time to act or the maximum effect of the process may not be obtained. This should be done in strong light and at least five minutes allowed. No fixing is necessary, the negative being washed for about twenty minutes and dried.

The success of this method of intensification can only be judged by making a print, and it often has a greater effect than may at first be thought.

REDUCTION

This consists in dissolving some of the negative image so that the contrasts of the negative are better and the result of over development corrected. There are two reducers, both of which may be obtained ready prepared—the best course, as the process, like intensification, is used but seldom.

The persulphate reducer is useful because it improves the contrasts of the negative by removing the detail. The Farmer reducer (ferricvanide and hypo) by acting first on the shadows will improve a negative which has been over-exposed and over-developed. The latter is more certain in its action than the persulphate.

All that is necessary is to place the negative in a clear dish and to pour the solution on. It should be stopped immediately the action has gone far enough in the case of the persulphate by placing the negative in a solution of sodium sulphite. The Farmer reducer is arrested by washing. These reducers are best bought ready prepared.

—PHARMACEUTICAL RECIPE

COMPOUND POWDER OF KALADANA

Kaladana, in fine powder 700 grams.
 Potassium acid tartrate finely powdered 700 "
 Ginger, finely powdered 600 "
 Mix.
 Dose:—60 to 90 grams.

LIVER PILLS

Podophyllin ½ gr.
 Rhubarb 2½ "
 Extract of hyoscyami 2 "
 Mucilage of tragacanth q. s.

Triturate the ingredients in a mortar and make into a stiff dough. Then make into pills. The above composition is sufficient for one pill.

WHITE ANT KILLER

Orthodichlorobenzal 24 parts.
 Solvent naphtha 45 "
 Betanaphthol 4 "
 Rosin 4 "
 Rect. spirit 7 "
 Mix all together and keep in air tight inversion bottles.

INDIGENOUS TONIC

Gulancha 1 dr.
 Chirata 1 "
 Ginger 1 "
 Water 1 pint.
 Boil down to half.
 Dose:—1 ounce after fever as a tonic.

CATARRHAL INHALANT

Menthol 320 gr.
 Pine oil 160 mins.
 Lavender oil 80 "
 Cinnamon oil 30 "
 Origanum oil 144 "
 Eucalyptus oil 120 "
 Liquid formaldehyde 40 "
 Rectified spirit 8 oz.
 Mix.

GLYCERINE SUPPOSITORIES

Glycerine suppositories are very much used to produce faecal discharge in constipation. They act by locally irritating the mucous membranes of the rectum, and are often satisfactory, though never really purgative. As an occasional remedy they are useful but their habitual employment is probably injurious to the mucous membrane.

Gelatin, cut small 14 grains.
 Glycerine 70 "
 Distilled water 16 "

The gelatin is soaked in the water for 5

ed on a water-bath until the gelatin has dissolved and the contents of the dish have been evaporated to a definite weight, which corresponds to 70 per cent. by weight of glycerine.

When the mixture has arrived at the correct weight, allow to stand for two or three min remove the scum that rises, and pour slightly oiled moulds.

The liquid mass is poured into moulds having a capacity of 15 grains (for infants) 30 grains (for children), 60 grains or 120 g (adult's medium or large) as may be required.

In moulding the suppositories it is of utmost importance to lubricate the mould with almond oil applied on cotton-wool and insert the mould so that any excess of lubricant drain out. By doing so the moulded mass will not stick to the surface of the moulds.

FEVER AND AGUE MIXTURE

Quinine sulphate ½ dr
 Sulphuric acid dil ½ "
 Syrup of orange 6 z
 Glycerine 4 dr
 Distilled water to make 8 o

Dissolve the quinine in the sulphuric acid and then mix with the other ingredients. I add the water to make up the required volume.

TINCTURE BENZOIN COMPOUND

Benzoin, in powder 100 grar
 Storax 75 "
 Balsam tolu 25 "
 Aloes 20 "
 Alcohol 90 p. c. to make 1000 c. c.

Macerate the benzoïn, storax, balsam and aloes with 800 c. c. of alcohol in a glass vessel for 2 days, shaking occasionally; then pass sufficient of the alcohol through the filter to produce the required volume.

MOUTH WASH TABLETS.

Sodium bicarbonate 8
 Saccharine 1
 Vanillin 20
 Coumarin 20
 Acid benzoic 20
 Oil cloves ½
 Oil caraway ½
 Oil lemon ½
 Oil gaultheria ½
 Oil menthol ½
 Acid carbolie ½
 Oleo-resin capsicum ½
 Carmine 20

Mix, granulate and make into 5 gr. tablets. One to be dissolved in half a wine glass of water and used as a mouth wash.

The basis for the mouth wash tablet is sodium bicarbonate with sugar or

—Recipes for Small Manufacturers

FLOOR POLISHING WAX

Spermaceti	4 oz.
Hard paraffin	4 "
Talc	8 "

Melt the spermaceti and hard paraffin together over slow fire. Then remove the source of heat and add the talc with stirring until thoroughly incorporated with the mixture. Then cooled reduce the product into a granular powder. Pack it in perforated container, with directions to sprinkle on the floor.

TELEPHONE DISINFECTANT CLEANSER

Thymol	1 gram.
Pine oil	15 drops.
Peppermint oil	15 "
Alcohol, denatured	5 c. c.
Tincture of green soap	10 "
Water to produce Mix.	50 "

LABEL VARNISH

Sandarac	6 oz.
Mastic	3 "
Venice turpentine	150 grains.
Alcohol	16 fl. oz.

Macerate with repeated stirring until solution is effected, and then filter.

TABLE SAUCE

Vinegar	1 qt.
Powdered pimento	2 oz.
Powdered cloves	1 dr.
Powdered black pepper	1 "
Powdered mustard	2 oz.
Powdered ginger	1 dr.
Common salt	2 oz.
Shallots	2 "
Tamarinds	3 "
Sherry wine	1 pint
Capsicum	1 dr.

Mix all together, simmer for 1 hour and strain it, and fill in bottles.

This sauce is never quite clear; straining to remove the coarser particles is all that is necessary.

DEPILATORY SOAP

Coconut oil	907 grams
Caustic Potash lye 33 p. c.	1915 "
Castor oil	1844 "
Glycerine	453 "
Starch	113 "
Sodium sulphide	907 "
Citronella	2 dr.

Put the castor and coconut oil in an iron pan over a moderate fire. Then pour the glycerine. Apply heat and when the temperature is nearly 100°C slowly stir in the caustic potash lye. Continue heating and stirring until the whole of the mixture is saponified. Add water if required. When the soap has been prepared,

remove the pan from the fire and incorporate the starch, and the other two ingredients. Allow the mass to cool and then cast into cakes of usual size.

TRANSFERRING PHOTOS TO GLASS

Where it is desired to transfer photos to glass for display purposes the following process may be easily carried out. The photo-plate should give excellent results. The developer, using glycerine, preparation, required can be made up without difficulty.

Glycerine	1 oz.
Colonia	1 "
Water	8 "
Alcohol	3 "

Dissolve the gelatine in the water with gentle heat, add the glycerin and pour the mixture slowly, with thorough mixing into the alcohol.

Thoroughly cleaned glass and unmounted photos, without printing or writing on the backs, must be used. Flow the solution in the glass and place the photo, face down, on the glass and press on every part of the solution. Excess should be removed to prevent bubble formation. Allow to dry the photograph when it is dry will be found to be flat and may be coloured if desired with oil paints.

GLASS FLEXIBLE LEATHER VARNISH

A good varnish may be prepared as follows:

Alcohol	100 parts
Gum sandrac	25 "
Venice turpentine	25 "
Pale resin	25 "
Castor oil	25 "
Nitrocin (Spirit soluble)	15 "
Distilled spirit	100 "

Place the ingredients in the methylated spirit and shake at intervals until dissolved. Finally strain through linen and bottle for use.

NAIL ENAMEL

Acetone	100 lbs.
Butyl acetate	200 "
Ethyl lactate	200 "
Dibutyl phthalate	100 "
Phenyl ethyl alcohol	1 fl. oz.
Cellulose nitrate	25 oz.
Eosine (alcoholic solution)	q. s.

Dissolve the cellulose nitrate in a solution of acetone, butyl acetate, and ethyl lactate. Add the dibutyl phthalate and finally the phenyl ethyl alcohol and the colour solution.

When preparing the above articles be careful to have no flame near as some of the ingredients are very inflammable.

—IN THE FIELD OF INVENTION

PHOTO-ELECTRIC CELL CONTROLS SHEET-FOLDING MACHINE

Of considerable interest to mill managements is a recent application of the photo-electric cell control the folding of sheets. The equipment, installed on the premises of James Bentley Ltd., Wilmington, Kent, and designed by Mr. K. Bentley, a director of the company, is used to control the folding of laundered sheets twice in the same direction, an operation which was previously done by two girls but which is now done automatically by the machine.

Each sheet is fed forward from an ironer to a number of parallel moving webbing belts. When it has moved forward a few inches, the leading edge of the sheet intercepts a beam of light falling on to an osram photo-electric cell and thereby operates a row of pneumatic grippers arranged across the path of the sheet. These grippers hold the leading edge of the sheet and raise it slightly above the belts and, as the remainder of the sheet is still moving forward, a fold is created. When the trailing edge of the sheet uncovers the light beam, a relay mechanism releases the gripper fingers and the two ends of the sheet fall together, a perfect fold being completed.

The sheet then moves forward to a second photo-electric cell and gripper fingers and another fold is made in the same way. At this point the sheet is folded "long and narrow" and, the operator removes it from the folder, she makes it the last transverse fold by hand. Although this machine is used in this case for the folding of sheets, the same principle could easily be applied to the folding of other textiles, paper, flannel-cloth, etc.

A second application of the photo-electric cell in this laundry is of particular importance at the present time in that it results in quite substantial fuel saving. After the washing processes, the clothes are passed through a drying room heated by means of a steam radiator cooled with a fan. A light beam is arranged to project across the room on to an Osram photo-electric cell and, as long as the beam is obscured by clothes passing around the room on the conveyor, the fan continues to run. If however, there is an interval between batches of work and the beam is unbroken, the photo-electric cell stops the fan. This leads to a substantial saving in the steam consumption of the radiator. When more clothes come along on the conveyor the fan automatically restarts.

—TEXTILE RECORDER.

UNIVERSAL WATER BATHS

Both large and small laboratories will appreciate the advantages of thermostatic water baths which, when used with appropriate racks and fittings, are suitable for a number of purposes. Six standard sizes of baths cover the requirements of the majority of laboratory tests.

The temperature range is from room temperature, or slightly below when the cooling unit is used, to 100 deg. C. Deviation can be thermostated working in conjunction with a hot-controlled within 0.5 deg. C. by a bimetallic wire vacuum switch. The tubular immersion heater, which is distributed evenly over the bottom of the bath, gives rapid response and uniform temperature distribution. Correct immersion for any test can be obtained by varying the water level and by adjusting the height of a strong perforated shelf fitted inside the bath.

—CHEMICAL PRODUCTS.

NEW GLASS FILTERS

A new series of glass filters of Czechoslovakian manufacture have recently come into use, and a few practical details concerning them may therefore be of interest to those working in hygienic, analytical chemistry, etc.

"Sifrital" glass filters are of such a strength as to withstand an underpressure of 1 atmosphere under normal working conditions. They are available in five grades of porosity, the finest having an average pore diameter of from 5 to 15 microns; it is thus able to meet all requirements of the most minute analytical work.

These filters are manufactured of highly resistant "Sial" glass and therefore withstand most thermal, chemical and mechanical influences. They may be placed, without being preheated, in drying ovens e.g., with pads of "Sial" glass and exposed to temperatures up to 150 deg. C. It is advisable to filter alkaline solutions cold, while acids and even concentrated acids should be filtered at temperatures up to 300 deg. C. Without preheating, the optimum temperature is 110 deg. C. New filters should first be flushed with hot hydrochloric acid and water in order to remove impurities, dust and glass particles.

Sediments are removed from "Sifrital" filters by chemical means, and the final washing is done by flushing with tap water from the reverse side. To achieve perfect cleanliness suitable solvents are employed, such as carbon tetrachloride for fats, hot ammonia or hydrochloric acid for albumins, hot sulphuric acid with potassium dichromate or sodium nitrate and sodium chlorate for organic matter, hot hydrochloric acid and potassium chlorate for cupric oxide, hot nitric acid for mercury, and ammonia or sodium thiosulphite for silver chloride. All glass tubes should be cleaned with hydrochloric acid and potassium chlorate.

Spare filters are cemented to their base by means of such cements as litharge, glycerin, sulphur, kaolin, water glass, zinc white.

"Sifrital" filters, which are particularly useful in minute analytical work, microbiology and microchemistry, are manufactured by Glassexport, Ltd. of Prague.

—FORMULAS, PROCESSES & ANSWERS

WOODEN BATTERY SEPARATORS

686 N. C. B., Dacca—Desires to know how wooden battery separators are made.

The separators, after manufacture, are given a chemical treatment to remove all the volatile acids, and to get rid of tannins and resinous matter as far as possible. The treatment consisted in boiling the separators in 1% aqueous solution of caustic soda for 2 hours, followed, by one hour's boiling in distilled water, with an intermediate washing to remove the colouring matter sticking to the separators. Lastly, the separators were thoroughly washed with the water till no trace of alkali was left. The separators were then fitted in the cells and made ready for test. The separators made of imported Port Orford cedar were used without any chemical treatment.

With *Talauma phellocarpa*, it was found that a second treatment in 1% caustic soda solution was necessary in order to remove most of the colouring matter present in it. It was also noticed that, this second boiling in caustic soda solution, rendered the separators a little more flexible than when only one treatment was given.

The details of an alternative chemical treatment evolved by the Chemical Branch of the Forest Research Institute, are given in the following paragraphs. Batteries fitted with separators treated in this way are still under the test in the Seasoning Section. The improvement, if any resulting from this longer chemical treatment, will only be known after some time, and the results will be reported in a later publication.

"Separators made of the Indian timbers under test were boiled in 2% aqueous solution of caustic soda for 3 hours, after which period, it was observed that practically the whole of the alkali had been neutralised, and that the colouring matter had not been completely removed from the separators. The separators were then removed from the hot solution, washed and again boiled in fresh solution of one per cent caustic soda for 2 hours. Except in the case of *Adina cordifolia*, the operation had to be repeated a third time (1% caustic soda) with all the other species till the solution extracted no further colouring matter. The separators were then removed from the bath, washed in water and boiled repeatedly in distilled water, till the last trace of alkali was removed. These were then drained and superficially dried by interposing a blotting paper and pressing under a hand press. The separators were then given a dip in a bath of glycerine, to which had been added a small amount of an antiseptic (Roshia grass oil + thymol 2 : 1) at 105°-110°C for about 15-20 minutes. The separators, after draining off the glycerine, were washed in running water for a few minutes and stored, while wet, by wrapping in waxed paper.

In order that the treated separators may retain sufficient moisture, even after exposure in air, this glycerine treatment has been found necessary, otherwise they are liable to warp and crack on drying. This step, also, help to keep them flexible and preserves their pliability. The addition of essential oil is an antiseptic application in order to prevent fungus growing on the separators, while kept moist, in storage.

HYDRAULIC BRAKE FLUID

Glycerin	I.	50 parts.
Decetone erythritol	II.	50 "
Alcohol ether		20 oz.
Castor oil No 1		20 "
Mix.		

CLARIFYING CASTOR OIL

To clarify castor oil mix 100 parts of the oil at 60° F. with a mixture of 1 part of alcohol (95 per cent) and 1 part of sulphuric acid. Mix and settle for 24 hours and then carefully decant from the precipitate. Now wash with water, settling for 1 hour, allow to settle for 24 hours in well closed vessels, after which the clarified oil may be taken off.

TOOTH PASTE

1111 LMS., Bareilly—Wishes to have a recipe of tooth paste.

Prepared chalk	6 oz.
Starch root (powder)	1 "
Magnesium carbonate (heavy)	1 "
Soap powder	1 "
Thymol	10 "
Castileys oil	20 mins.
Methyl salicylate	20 "
Glycerin	1 oz.
Simple syrup	1 "
Water	1 q.s.

Mix the glycerin, simple syrup and water. Next mix together chalk, starch root, and magnesium carbonate.

Now pour a sufficient quantity of the solution into the mixing machine. The powder mixture is next added gradually the right balance or consistency being maintained by the frequent addition of further quantities of excipient. When the paste is nearly finished add the mixture of thymol, methyl salicylate and castileys oil. The soap is added last, when the cream will immediately become very soft. The "machine" is allowed to work until even distribution of all the constituents has been attained. The product is then forced through a fine sieve to remove grit or lumps of congealed soap, etc. As the paste contains a lot of air bubbles, it is allowed to stand a few hours and then filled in collapsible tubes.

SULPHURIC ACID

1147 H.S.M., Culberga—Wants to have a process of making battery acid.

The electrolyte for accumulators must be sulphuric acid of suitable densities depending on its ampere-hour discharge. The amount of solution or specific gravity of electrolyte, when the batteries are fully charged, should be about 1.90 to 1.225 at 60°F. for power station cells, 1.200 to 1.300 for motor car batteries densities of from 1.200 to 1.300 are often used. To prepare the acid solution of a particular density take a quantity of distilled water in a glass or glazed earthenware vessel of sufficient capacity, then gradually add the sulphuric acid stirring all the while with a clean wooden stick. Heat will develop due to the chemical action. Now allow the mixture to cool before pouring into the cells.

After cooling, the specific gravity will be found than while hot, and the careful addition of a little water may be necessary to bring the liquid to a proper density.

LUSTRE POLISHING BAR

1228 S.B., Moradabad—Desires to know formulas of making lustre polishing bar, etc.

Tallow	1 lb.
Red ferric oxide	2 oz.
Oxalic acid	3 dr.
Pumice powder	2 oz.

Powder the acid, mix with oxide and pumice powder. Then incorporate into the melted tallow. Lastly press the mixture in suitable moulds. The oxide and pumice must be quite free from grit, or it may produce scratches on the surface of polished metals.

SEERLESS POLISHING STICK

100 lb. oleo-stearine and 20 lb. of double-refined stearic acid is placed in a kettle and melted by being brought to a temperature slightly above 130 degrees F.

To this hot mixture, add five lb. of triethanolamine and allow the resultant mixture to stand, while still hot, a sufficient time for thorough commingling and to enable the chemical reaction of saponification to be completed.

The above mixture is fed into a suitable mixing machine, which has been previously heated, and there slowly commingled with 220 lb. of tripoli powder and 180 lb. of powdered lint, this mixing operation generally requiring about one and one-half hours. The compound is transferred to suitable moulds in which it is allowed to solidify and harden into cakes of

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suitable size and shape for convenience in application to buffing wheels.

JEWELLER'S ROUGE

Green vitriol (crystals)	50 parts.
Nitrate of soda (pure)	25 "
Common salt	18 "
Sodium sulphate	18 "

Pulverise the ingredients separately. Then mix the green vitriol, saltpetre and common salt, stir the mixture with water to a thin paste and boil down the mass in an iron crucible to dryness. Now heat the mixture thus obtained in a hessian crucible at a red heat until it becomes quiet and homogeneous. Then pour it out and when cool, powder, boil with water for a few minutes and wash. It is advisable to somewhat elutriate the powder thus obtained to eliminate grains of sand which may have reached it from the crucible. Finally collect the powder upon a cloth and dry.

DOUBLE SULPHATE OF NICKEL AND AMMONIA

The Double Sulphate of Nickel and Ammonium may readily be formed by dissolving oxide or carbonate of nickel in dilute sulphuric acid (1 part acid to 2 parts water). The resulting solution is then to be neutralised with ammonia and crystallised. To each pound of the dry crystals add 1 pound of pure sulphate of ammonia, dissolve the mixed salts, evaporate the solution and re-crystallise. Cube or grain nickel may also be dissolved in a mixture composed of 1 part sulphuric acid and 2 parts water, with the addition of a small quantity of nitric acid, moderate heat being applied as before. The solution is then to be evaporated and set aside to crystallise, and to convert the sulphate of nickel into the double salt, sulphate of ammonia is to be added in the same proportion as before; the mixed salts must be dissolved, filtered, and crystallised.

ETCHING POWDER

1235 R.K., Jullundur City—Wants to have a recipe of etching powder.

Etching powder for metals like tin, silver, iron, german silver, copper, and zinc may be prepared by mixing:—

Blue vitriol	1 part.
Ferric oxide	4 parts.

Mix. This mixture may be moistened and applied to the places to be etched.

DRAGON'S BLOOD

Dragon's blood is a kind of red resin obtained by evaporating the fluid which exudes out of freshly cut canes and rottans. This is however, for the most part prepared from the fruits of several species of calamagrostis, met with in Eastern Sumatra, South Borneo and Penang. The gum exudes naturally from between the scales of the fruit, but inferior qualities are obtained by boiling the fruits or by tapping the stems.

ARTIFICIAL MARBLE

1336 K.M.T.F., Mohim—Wants to have a recipe of making artificial marble.

Alum, 1,000 parts; heavy spar, 10 to 100 parts; water, 100 parts; the amount of heavy spar being governed by the degree of translucence desired. The alum is dissolved in water with the use of heat. As soon as the solution boils the heavy spar is mixed in, stirred with water and the pigment; this is then boiled down until the mixture has lost about 3 per cent. of its weight, at which moment the mass exhibits a density of 34°Be . at a temperature of 12°F . The mixture is allowed to cool with constant stirring until the substance is semi-liquid. The resultant mass is poured in a mould covered on the inside with several layers of collodion and the cast permitted to cool completely in the mould, whereupon it is taken out and dried entirely in an airy room. Subsequently the object may be polished, patinized, or finished in some other way.

PREPARATION OF COPPER SULPHATE

1337 B.L.T., Ambala Cantt.—Wishes to know the processes of manufacturing copper sulphate, etc.

I

Copper sulphate is also obtained by directly dissolving the metal in concentrated sulphuric acid; for this purpose copper and sulphuric acid are heated together. The metal is oxidised by a portion of the oxygen of the acid, while sulphurous acid escapes. The crude copper obtained by smelting the ore, and containing about 60 per cent. of metal is treated with sulphuric acid. The resulting solution is evaporated in leaden vessels and the clear liquid is left to crystallise in copper pans. From the mother liquor of the crystals, metallic copper is precipitated by means of iron, because the presence of a large quantity of iron sulphate renders this mother liquor unfit for vitriol. This method of obtaining copper sulphate is the least expensive but the salt is not quite pure.

II

If the copper scraps, turnings, borings, etc. are previously converted into copper oxide by exposure to a red heat, only half the quantity of sulphuric acid needed when the metal and the acid are heated directly, is required. On a large scale it is manufactured as follows:

Sheets or scraps of copper are heated to redness in a reverberatory furnace to the fuming point of sulphur. A quantity of sulphur is thrown in. The furnace door and other openings are closed tightly, the effect being the formation of copper sulphide. After some time air is admitted into the furnace whereby the sulphide is converted by a comparatively low heat and the action of the oxygen into sulphate. The mass is next placed in a suitable vessel and as much sulphuric acid is added to it as is sufficient to saturate the oxide of copper. The clear solution, having been decanted from the insoluble residue is set aside for crystallisation.

SODIUM CITRATE

Sodium citrate is a crystallisable substance much used in medicine. It is usually prepared

by neutralising a saturated solution of sodium bicarbonate with a saturated solution of citric acid. The sodium of the bicarbonate unites with the citric acid to form the sodium citrate, and the carbon dioxide gas escapes, producing effervescence.

The resulting solution is directed to be evaporated to dryness. The mass is again dissolved in the least quantity of water and set aside to crystallise.

MAGNESIUM SULPHATE

Magnesium sulphate may be obtained from dolomite or magnesium limestone. For this purpose the mineral, broken into fragments, is heated with a sufficient quantity of dilute sulphuric acid to convert its carbonates into sulphates, the sulphate of magnesium is washed out of the mass with hot water and the solution, after filtration, is evaporated and crystallised.

SODIUM ACETATE

Sodium acetate may be prepared by neutralising sodium carbonate with acetic acid. The solution thus obtained is evaporated and set aside to crystallise.

EYE DROPS

1316 N.L.V. Muttapur—Wishes to have a good formula of eye drops.

Pink acid	175 grains.
Zinc sulphate	44 "
Sterilised water to make	20 fl. oz.

Dissolve the solids in the sterilised water and then strain through a small plug of cotton wool. The clear portion of the lotion may contain boric acid and is therefore allowed to be used again.

STORAGE BATTERY PLATES

1314 K.R.D. Mundra Desires to know a process of making storage battery plates.

A storage battery in its simplest form consists of two lead plates. The positive plate is coated with red lead, while the negative is covered with litharge. To coat the positive plate, prepare a stiff paste of red lead with dilute sulphuric acid. Ordinary commercial sulphuric

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id may be used for the purpose but it might be diluted with water; about 2 parts of water to 1 part of acid seems to be a good proportion for the acid commonly used. Concentrated acid may be used with the addition of water, in this case the plates will take a very long time to dry and harden, which is objectionable. Coat the negative plate, similarly prepare paste of litharge with the sulphuric acid solution as prepared above. In pasting the plates, lay them flat on a wooden board and rub the paste on the surface of the respective plate with a spatula. After this set aside the plates with edge upward in a warm place to dry and harden. From 12 to 24 hours, according to season, are necessary for drying the plates thoroughly.

TOBACCO CAR WAX POLISH

Carnauba wax	120	parts.
Kerosene oil	50	"
Stearic acid	15	"
Oleic acid	3	"
Benzaldehyde	6	"
Triethanolamine	8	"
Water to make	825	"

Melt the carnauba wax, stearic acid and oleic acid. Remove from fire and add the kerosene oil and benzaldehyde. Stir thoroughly. Now add a hot solution (80°-85°C.) consisting of 240 parts of water and the triethanolamine. Stir well until a smooth emulsion is formed. Then add sufficient hot water to make 825 parts. Continue stirring until nearly cold; then bottle.

KIMAM.

1396 H.H.J., Vankar -Wishes to have process of making kimam.

The principle underlying the manufacture of kimam is almost the same as in the case of surti. The only difference to be kept in view is that while surti is to be marketed in solid form, kimam is put on the market in the form of a thick liquid of various consistency.

Usually the water that is rejected after washing tobacco leaves in boiling water is made use of in the composition of the kimam. The tobacco wash is of any value to the manufacturers must be strong enough to impart to the final product its characteristic taste and colour.

The leaves most suited for the preparation of kimam are Hingli and Madras. But Rangpur leaves also yield a very good quality of kimam. Usually 1 seer of leaf gives 1½ seers of kimam.

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Various kinds of spices such as cardamom major, cardamom minor, saffron, aniseed, coriander seed, etc., may be incorporated with the tobacco wash as flavouring agents may be used but in a particular preparation all these should not be jumbled up. Judicious selection of the ingredients alone can give a balanced product. The quantity of the spices to be added is a factor dependent upon the taste and requirement of the people for whom the article is meant. Addition of musk to the extent of 1 to 2 drs. for every seer of kimam also improves the flavour.

The spices are allowed to ferment in the tobacco wash. The proportion of the tobacco wash and the spices should be so adjusted that the product after the completion of the fermentation operation attains a syrupy consistency. Finally add natural ottoes such as ottoes of hena, patchouli, etc. just before packing.

METHYLENE BLUE

1416 K.L.M., Nagpur Desires to know formulas of preparing methylene blue, eosine, etc.

Dimethylaniline	24	grams.
Hydrochloric acid, conc.	65	"
Sodium nitrite	7.1	"
Zinc dust	20	"
Sodium thiosulphate	50	grams.
Potassium bichromate	25	"
Sulphuric acid, conc.	53	"
Sodium chromate, neutral	8	"

Dissolve 12 grams of dimethylaniline in a mixture of 40 c. c. of water and 65 grams of concentrated hydrochloric acid, and cool the solution with ice to 12°-15°C. Stir the mixture and slowly run in the sodium nitrite, taking care that the temperature does not rise above 15°C. The compound thus formed is next reduced by carefully adding the zinc dust, and the reduction is complete when the solution is of a clear red colour. The amount of zinc dust added must be sufficient to neutralise the hydrochloric acid, so that the blue litmus paper is no longer turned red. The solution is now diluted with water to 500 c.c. and a solution of 12 grams of dimethylaniline in the exact quantity of hydrochloric acid necessary to form the hydrochloride added, and then a solution of 50 grams of sodium thiosulphate in a little water.

Then oxidise the mixture by adding a concentrated solution of 25 grams of potassium bichromate and boiling for 2 hours.

Now pour the sulphuric acid being diluted with 100 c.c. of water and boil so as to expel sulphur dioxide formed in the reaction.

Next oxidise the leuco-methylene blue by adding the neutral sodium chromate dissolved in a little water and precipitate the resulting dye by the addition of salt.

Again, filter the base, dissolve it in a little boiling water to which a little hydrochloric acid has been added and again precipitate by con-

—READER'S BUSINESS PROBLEMS

[Reader's business problems will be discussed in these pages. We invite the reader to write his difficulties. As the department is in charge of an experienced businessman who is specially adept in dealing with such problems and to whom experiences of a large number of successful businessmen are available, his replies will lead the enquirer to a successful career. These replies will be published in the paper only and cannot be communicated by post.]

WRITING FOR THE PRESS

349 P.L.D., Burdwan—Wishes to be enlightened on how to write for the Press.

It is a matter of extreme difficulty to lay own rules for successful writing for the press, since the qualities that make a man a welcome contributor to political paper will probably debar him from the columns of financial and economical paper. But all newspapers and periodicals have one thing in common. Their space is arbitrarily restricted and therefore the writer who fills a page with what can be adequately said in a sentence cannot hope for popularity with editors.

There is an obvious difference between the necessary qualifications of the man who reports and of the man who comments. The reporter must have very alert eyes. He must be able to see more than the average man, and if he has his acute sight, the measure of his understanding is a matter of comparative unimportance. He must, too, have detachment. Prejudice and enthusiasm both affect observation.

Outstanding success in writing for the press, almost equally with other writing depends on personality.

But while there is, on every newspaper staff, a small number of "star" writers who are employed because of their own individual qualities, most of the columns are filled by men with the capacity for concise description, written with a certain sense of style, who may be relied on for accuracy and a propriety, which I am bound to add is esteemed far more highly in some offices than it is in others.

The commentator—the writer of leading articles and of literary, dramatic and artistic criticism—must also possess the same capacity for concise expression, with a sense of style and a knowledge which must be wide, but need not be very deep. The newspaper writer must learn how to use books of reference, must know where to find his facts and where to put his hand on the apt quotation. And I certainly commend the aspirant to collect anthologies. They save a world of time.

METHODS OF EXPORTING GOODS

1342 P.C., Bombay -- Requests us to describe the methods of exporting goods.

When an order is received for sending goods to a foreign country it is ordinarily

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known as an indent and it contains particulars about the order and the terms and conditions for its execution. Amongst others it usually contains the following particular detailed description of the goods required, the rate of price, shipping and packing instruction, rate of valuation for insurance purposes, the date of shipment and the terms of commission, etc. Thereafter the exporter places order with manufacturers, wholesale dealers or producers, etc. whom he considers able to supply one or more items of goods mentioned in the indent, or ask for quotation from them. Then he sends intimation to the foreign merchant confirming the order given in the indent. The instruction for packing, forwarding will be given to the suppliers. These contain directions regarding the marks and numbers to be put on the cases, and the name of the port, dock or station where they are to be sent mentioning the ship by which they are to be shipped, and their ultimate destination. In packing and marking particular care should be taken according to the nature of the contents. When the goods are loaded invoices are prepared giving the name of the vessel and the marks and numbers of the cases together with the charges for cases, cartage, freight, primage, bill of lading, dock charges and insurance charges. When the goods are placed on board the ship, the bills of lading in triplicate are prepared and signed by the master of the ship. They are also to be stamped. Thereafter they are handed over to the shipper of the goods. Each of them contains the names of the ship and the shipper, the place of loading and destination, the description of goods together with their weight and freight charges, the name of the person to whom the goods are to be delivered. When the goods are actually loaded, the shipper gets a mate's receipt for the goods thus loaded. The bills of lading are received by him from the officer in exchange for the mate's receipt.

One invoice, one of the bills of lading together with the insurance policy covering the goods, if any, are sent by post to the consignee so that they may reach him before the arrival of goods. It is also customary to send duplicate copies of the same by the next mail again, to the consignee so that if the invoice, bills of lading, etc. sent previously be misarrived the consignee may be put to any difficulty. The triplicate copy of these documents are kept by the shipper with himself.

The consignee on receipt of all these documents compares the details contained in them with the details of the order placed by him in order to see that the order has been strictly complied with.

—BRIEF QUERIES AND REPLIES

Questions of any kind within the scope of Industry are invited. Enquiries or replies from our experts will be published free of charge in serial order. Questions are replied by post on receipt of Rs. 8 stamps for each question. Subscribers outside India are requested to send two International Reply coupons for each question. In order to facilitate the work of Editor's Department and to help prompt action the readers are requested to send enquiries in separate letters

1133 C.R.R., Bangalore City—Processes of manufacturing brake fluid, neo cellulose thinner and clarifying castor oil appears in this issue.

1135 S.N.W., Sattur—Process of electroplating stainless steel will appear in due course.

1137 P.B.L., Mathura — Needle making machines may be had of Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A. Wire may be had of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

1138 K.P.S., Jabalpur — Bengal Sattifood may be had of Amulya Dhone Paul & Co., 113, Chengrapatty Street, Calcutta. Shrimany's palm sugar candy may be had of Sugar Candy Factory, 4, Vivekananda Road, Calcutta.

1139 C.D.S., New Delhi—You may stock medicines at your home and supply to dealers who want. Afterwards when you will get a suitable room on moderate rent you may start a shop. You should select only those common medicines that are always in good demand. In this way you may expand your business from small beginning.

1140 A.S., Ajmer—For goggles and optical goods enquire of Eastern Optical Co., 306, Bowazar Street, James Murray & Co. Ltd., 5, Old Court House Street and New Indian Optical Co., 57-3, Bow Bazar Street, all of Calcutta. Fountain pens may be had of F. N. Gooptu & Co., 2, Bellaghata Road; G. C. Law & Co., Cornwallis Street and Bharati Works, 22, Canal South Road; all of Calcutta. Fountain pens and other materials may be had of the above firms.

1141 M.A., Madras—Reply to your query appears under No. 1086 above.

1142 B.R.S.S., Ludhiana—For transfer labels enquire of R. G. Paul & Co., 110/2, Grey Street, Calcutta and Signograph Co., 208, Gopal Lal Thakur Rd., Baranagore, Calcutta.

1143 N.H., Siwan—For sewing machine enquire of Oriental Machineries Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1144 P.M.S., Bareilly — Formula of tooth paste appears elsewhere in this issue. Collap-

sible tubes may be had of Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpur, Calcutta. Tube filling machine may be had of International Trading Co., 13, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

1146 O.R., Rohtak Mandi—Plastic machine may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22 R. G. Kar Road; Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1 Royal Exchange Place and Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road; all of Calcutta. Plastic powder may be had of Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd., 18, Strand Road, Calcutta.

1147 H.B.M.C., Gulberga—Process of recharging storage batteries will appear in due course.

1152 R.C., Kanpur—You perhaps mean vacuum packing machine which may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1153 A.T.P., Delhi—You should use Darjeeling or Dooar's tea for producing good flavour to ever ready tea.

1154 B.N.D., Calcutta—Addresses of chalk pencil manufacturer and tailor's chalk manufacturers quoted by you are complete; you may communicate with them direct.

1157 K.D.K., Dhandhuka—You may send article on fruit canning and preserving and if approved by our Editorial Board will be published in Industry.

1163 K.S.M., Cuttack—We are not aware of any University or College where practical training is given on plastic industry.

1164 J.W.K., Batala—For pin, nib and needle making machines enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1165 B.D., Longai — Transfer pictures may be had of R. G. Paul & Co., 110/2, Grey Street and Signograph Co., Baranagore; both of Calcutta. Fret work is done by means of fret working machine which may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. You may consult Indigenous Drugs of India by R. N. Chopra.

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MANUFACTURE OF SCHOOL SLATE

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A chapter has been added on the manufacturing of steel slate.

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1172 S.I.B., Jhansi—Formulas of snow and vanishing cream appeared in April, 1950 issue of Industry.

1173 K.B.R., Vizianagram—For bakelite caps enquire of the following firms:—India Moulding Co., C-2, Bharat Bhawan, 13, Chittaranjan Avenue; National Moulding Co. Ltd., 26, Upper Chitpur Road and Radha Bazar Bottle Stores, 15, Radha Bazar Lane; all of Calcutta. Tin printing is undertaken by Bengal Tin Box Mfg. Co. Ltd., 1, Jadu Mitra Lane, Calcutta; National Sheet & Metal Works Ltd., 36A, Sahitya Parishad Street, Calcutta and Metal Box Co. of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpore, Calcutta. Labels may be had of Sikri & Co., 55, Canning Street, Calcutta. Collapsible tubes may be had of Metal Box of India Ltd., B2, Hide Road, Kidderpore, Calcutta. You may use denatured spirit in ink.

1174 S.S., Nagpur—For match splints and veneers you may enquire of the following firms: Amrit Match Factory, Kargi Road, Bilaspur; Madras Match Works Ltd., 42, Gollawar Agraharam Road, Tondiarpet, Madras and Anakapalli Match Co., Anakapalli, Vizagapatam.

1176 V.M.L., Cranganore—We have no book on film industry. For cinema machines enquire of Britania Talking Machine Co., 134, Dharamtalla Street, Calcutta; Eastern Electric & Engineering Co., 127, Mahatma Gandhi Road, Bombay 1 and International Talkie Equipment Co., 17, Queen's Road, Bombay.

1178 S.K.B., Kaliashahar Oxalic acid and gallic acid may be had of Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta. Aniline blue, naphthol black, etc. may be had of Fuzlehussein & Bros., 44, Armenian Street and Champalal Agarwalla, 45, Armenian Street; both of Calcutta.

1179 K.D.B.C., Mandsaur—Following is a list of cement factories: Rohtas Industries Ltd., Dalmianagar, Dehri-on-Sone Dt., Shahabad; Monevalley Portland Cement Co. Ltd., Janla; Sahabad Cement Factory, Hyderabad; Katni Cement Industrial Co. Ltd., Katni; Pafala Cement Co. Ltd., Surajpur; Pahala State and Lakheri Cement Works Ltd., Lakheri, Saurashtra. Complete list of cement factories will be found in Industry Year Book & Directory published from this office, price Rs. 16/4/- including postage. In order to remove rancidity of old ghee boil the ghee with lemon leaves and raw turmeric.

1181 K.R.S., Rayadurg—For gunny enquire of the following firms:—Bholaram Motilal, 72, Cotton Street; Das Brothers, 29, Strand Road and Pioneer Bag Co., 15, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta. Carpets may be had of C. M. Hadow & Co., Srinagar, Kashmir; Kailash Carpet Factory, Srinagar, Kashmir; Indian Carpet Corporation, 30, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta

and Carpet Stores, 7 & 11, Lindsay Street, Calcutta. You may have the plant locally.

1182 B.C., Ahmednagar—For radio receivers of required brand enquire of K. C. Dey & Sons, 161-1, Harrison Road; Phillips Electrical Co. (India) Ltd., 2, Heysham Road and General Radio & Appliances Ltd., 10, Old Court House Street; all of Calcutta.

1184 S.C., Maharano—For tools required enquire of Subol Dutt & Sons Ltd., 13, Rabbourne Road, Calcutta; and Vickers Eastern Ltd., 19, British Indian Street, Calcutta.

1186 M.G., Tinsukia Botanic name of chaulmoogra is *hydnocarpus inebrians* and in ayurved system it is known as chaulmoogra. Formulas of ink will be found in April 1950 issue of Industry.

1189 G.M.B., Gadag Following is a list of glass factories in Calcutta: Artistic Glass Works, 2, Tagore Castle Street; Asiatic Glass Product, 20B, Sahitya Parishad Street; Burma Glass Works, 9, Ezra Street; Hind Glass Works Ltd., 35, Chittaranjan Avenue and Krishna Silicate & Glass Works Ltd., 17, Radha Bazar Street. Full list of glass factories will be found in Industry Year Book and Directory published from this office, price Rs. 16/4/- including postage. Following is a list of pottery manufacturers: Bengal Potteries Ltd., 45, Tangra Road; Calcutta Potteries Ltd., 8, Lyons Range; Hindustan Potteries, 12, Shub Kristo Daw Lane, Orient Potteries Ltd., 116, Mission Row Extension and Reliance Firebrick & Pottery Co. Ltd., 8, Clive Row, all of Calcutta.

1190 S.K.R.K.R.S., Moradabad You may use extra hard paraffin wax 1 lb. and 1 lb. tallow in the formula of lustre polish.

1193 H.R.S., Narsapur—Process of manufacturing all sorts of ink will be found in Manufacture of Ink published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

1197 A.G.W., Vaniyambadi—For tanning chemicals write to Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 10, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta; Allied Agency, 16, Bonfield Lane, Calcutta and Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Khengrapatty Street, Calcutta

1199 V.N., Delhi Acid colouring bath may be a solution of acid colour to be used in dyeing. Sometimes some salts are required to make the colour fast.

1203 M.A.S., Lahore—We have no book on flour milling industry. For letter enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1943) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta and Standard Literature Co. Ltd., 12/3, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.

1204 K.R., Salem Jn.—We cannot publish notice of ballot box invented by you without seeing its usefulness.

MANUFACTURE OF RUBBER GOODS

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1205 T.R.V.K.S., Mysore—To produce gloss to soap use 5 p. c. castor oil.

1206 R.K.D., Vengurla—Process of refining and deodorising coconut oil, groundnut oil and castor oil will appear in due course.

1207 S.D.C., Truchiarapalli—For celluloid sheets enquire of A. K. Zainuddin & Co., 122, Bhindi Bazar, Mohamad Manzil, Bombay 3; Kundanmal Ramlal, Sewri Bldg., 78-80 New Hanuman Lane, Bombay 2 and Swadeshi Industries Ltd., 100, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.

1208 P.S.B., Mysore—You should use vacuum packing machine, for making sweetmeat tins airtight. Vacuum packing machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1209 R.S.C., Agra—Process of chromium plating will be found in Electroplating in Practice published from this office, price Rs. 3/9/- including postage.

1210 C.R.R., Bangalore City — Process of manufacturing artificial leather cloth will appear in due course.

1211 S.C., Habarana—Detailed process of manufacturing casein moulding powder follows after the general process. You should try the detailed process as given.

1212 H.B.H., Simla—Mixing and kneading machines may be had of Prabartak Commercial Corporation Ltd., 61, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta and Kilburn & Co. Ltd., 4, Fairlie Place, Calcutta.

1213 D.O., Gwalior—For British Pharmacopla enquire of Das Gupta & Co., 54-3, College Street, Calcutta.

1216 V.G.S., Cochin—For books on palmistry write to D. B. Taraporevala Sons & Co. Ltd., Taj Bldg., 210, Hornby Road, Bombay; D. A. Nadkarni & Co. Ltd., 22, Tank Road, Bombay 26; Gurudas Chatterjee & Sons, 203-1-1, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta and Dey Brother, B47, Sir Stuart Hogg Market, Calcutta.

1218 D., Kanpur—For books on embroidery designs write to Gurudas Chatterjee & Sons, 203-1-1, Cornwallis St., Calcutta; Wachel Molla & Sons, 6, Dharamtala Street, Calcutta and L. Mullick, Wool House, 183, Dharamtala Street, Calcutta.

1219 S.M.Y., Trichinopoly—Following is a list of newspapers: Ettalast; Iran; Armaghian; Omid and Setareh issued from Teheran, Persia.

1225 A.N.M., Banaras—You may start mail order business with small capital. You may also go through Reader's Business Problems Section.

1227 P.V.G., Alleppey—Following is a list of used stamp dealers: Ghosal & Co., 85, Tanti-

para Lane, Santragachi, Howrah; Stamp Mart 13, Dharamtala Street, Calcutta and Stamp Centre, 10, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

1228 S.B., Moradabad—Formulas of lustre peerless etc. appear elsewhere in this issue.

1229 B.M.S.S.W., Bombay — For required hydrometer enquire of Adair Dutt & Co. Ltd. Stephen House, 4 & 5, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta

1231 J.N.C., Bogra—It is not possible to deodorise methylated spirit. You may use carnauba wax to shoe polish. As regards tara alta you may use glue or gum arabic to make alta bright and glossy.

1232 J.B., Gadag—For plastic signboards and nameplates enquire of Gem & Co., 325, 326 China Bazar, Madras.

1233 E.B., Erode—Chemicals may be had of Parry & Co. Ltd., Chemical Dept., Dare House Post Box No. 12, Madras; P. R. Pillai & Co 36, Venkatachala Mudaly Street, P. T., Madras and Premier Indian Scientific Co. Ltd., 1-33 Varadarajulu Naidu Road, Egmore, Madras.

1234 R.K.S., Sibsagar—For tobacco cutting machines enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1235 R.K.S., Jullundur City—Process of manufacturing etching powder, dragon's blood appears elsewhere in this issue.

1236 A.P.C.S., Calcutta—Process of silvering glass appeared in April, 1950 issue of Industry.

1237 S.R.M., Kumbakonam—Please write in English.

1238 A.P.J., Rohtak—Safety pin and ball pin making machines may be had of Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A

1247 P. R. K., Banaras City — Weaving accessories may be had of Apollo Engineering Co., 84, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay; H. M. Mehta & Co., Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay and Hindusthan Loom Co. Ltd., 5, Bank Street Fort, Bombay.

1249 P.P., Banaras—Address of Sen & Co is 37, Moti Sil Street, Calcutta 13.

1251 D.I.U.C., Ujjain — Addresses other than those already published in Industry Year Book and Directory are not available.

1254 T.R.S.L., Madras —For ruby red glass enquire of United Provinces Glass Works Ltd Bijnor, Moradabad, U.P.

1256 H.G.A., Orai — Distilling apparatus may be had of Adair Dutt & Co. Ltd., Stephen House, 4 & 5, Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta Ointment pots of plastic may be had of Nute (India) Ltd., Deokaran Mansion, Princess St Bombay and Plasto Metal Moulding Co. of India

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Bombay 1.

1258 P.N.C., Anakapalle—We have no book on mantle manufacture. An article on mantle manufacture appeared in December, 1949, issue of Industry.

1262 G.R.B., Kurdwadi—Following is a formula of imitation gold: Copper 90 parts; gold 2½ parts; aluminium 7½ parts. Melt the copper and the gold in a crucible composed of refractory materials or of a mixture of unburnt fire clay and dust of firebricks, glass pots or seggars and when the metals are fluid the aluminium is added. When not more than 2 lbs. of the alloy are made at a time the mass is kept in a fuse state for half an hour about 1½ oz. of borax being added as a flux. The melted mass is then poured into ingots.

1264 K.C.W., Agra—Plastic machines may be had of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road and Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta.

1265 H.S., Howrah Process of manufacturing pencil will be found in Industry Prize Articles Vol. 1 published from this office, price Rs. 2/- including postage.

1269 S.N.W., Sattur—You may use nitric acid for etching iron.

1270 N.K.S.W.M.U., Srinagar—Crown cork may be had of Crown Cork Manufacturing Co., 1, Uma Kanto Sen Lane; Ghughudanga, Calcutta.

1274 G.V., Surat—You may take agency of goods manufactured by Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 164, Manicktala Main Road; Bengal Immunity Co. Ltd., 153, Dharamtala Street and Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., Panditjiya Road; all of Calcutta.

1275 C.A.G., Dehra Dun For plants of mango enquire of Globe Nursery, College St., Market, Calcutta; National Nursery, 46, Ramdhone Mitra Lane, Calcutta; Kumbum Nursery, Ramnagar, Nainital and Bass Nursery & Flower Garden, Rai Bahadur Road, Behala, Calcutta.

1277 P.J.P.R.C., Vellore—For washing oil dissolve 1 part salt in 100 parts water and use this. Quantity should be half the quantity of oil to be washed. Then make a solution containing 1 part sodium bicarbonate in 100 parts water and use this solution for washing oil. For diesel oil engines enquire of the following firms: Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road; Bombay Co. Ltd., Pollock House, Pollock Street; Heafly & Gresham Ltd., 6, Mission Row Extension; Marshall Sons & Co. Ltd., 99, Netaji Subhas Road and National Engineering Co., 379, Netaji Subhas Road; all of Calcutta.

1270 M.A.N., Nagpur—Process of manufacturing white paint will appear in due course.

1279 C.J.D., Tuticorin—Dip the yarn in a strong solution of alum and carefully dry it. For preserving fishing net for 40 parts of net 3 parts of kutch; 1 part of blue vitriol; ½ part of potassium chromate and 2½ parts of wood tar are required. The kutch is boiled with 150 parts of water until dissolved and then the blue vitriol added. Next the net is entered and the tar added. The whole should be stirred well and the net must boil 5 to 8 minutes. Now take out the netting lay it in another vessel, cover up well and leave also for 12 hours. After that is dried well spread out in a clean place and coated with linseed oil. Not before 6 hours have elapsed should it be folded together and put into the water.

1281 K. L. G., Kargil Road - For selling beedies in Burma, Java, etc. advertise in newspapers of those countries.

1284 P.G., Dhakuria Formula of ordinary taral alta given at last of all formulas of taral alta will be good and at the same time cheap.

1287 M.L.P., Colombo We have no book on export trade of Ceylon. You may consult Ceylon Trade Journal issued by the Department of Commerce, Colombo, Ceylon.

1288 H.C.N., Panulia For power looms enquire of W. H. Brady & Co. Ltd., Mercantile Bldg., Lall Bazar, Calcutta; M. L. Chatterjee & Sons, 4, Commercial Bldg., and Britannia Engineering Co. Ltd., 28, Dalhousie Square; all of Calcutta. For details you may negotiate with the firms direct.

1289 P.T.J., Trichur - Confectionery machines may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

1291 J.K.R., Bombay Following is a list of match manufacturers: Islam Match Factory, Ahmedabad; Kankaria Match Factory, New Kankaria Tank, Ahmedabad; New Cambay Match Factory, Cambay, Kaira, Western India Match Co. Ltd., Alambazar, Near Calcutta; Pioneer Match Factory, 16, Durrum Road, 21 Pares, and Hydrat Match Co., 150A, Belliah Main Road, Calcutta. Fire works may be had of Orient Fire Works Co., 175 B, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta; Jai Hind Fire Works, Karim Chambers, Hamam Street, Fort, Bombay.

1293 M.A.A.S., Virginia—Particulars of saw dust are not known.

1294 L.L., Chaibasa The treatment of walls which are to be painted in flat colours is to prime with a thin coat of lead and oil well brushed into the wall. Next put on a thin coat of glue size; next a coat mixed with ½ oil and turpentine; next a coat of flat paint mixed with turpentine. If you use any dry pigment mix

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oil and thin with turpentine. If, in case the paint dries too fast, and is liable to show laps, put a little glycerine in, retard the drying.

1295 Y.L. Shivpuri—We have no book on laundry. For laundry machine enquire of Shop & Co. Ltd., 93, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta and Phoenix Machinery Agency, Gordhanwary 4th Lane, Khetwadi, Bombay.

1296 F.C., Bombay — Saffron may be had Bhan Brothers Ltd., Srinagar; Fairways, Q. Box No. 51, Srinagar, and Kashmir Honey Treas., Udhampur; all of Kashmir.

1297 R.K.C., Lashkar—Process of making chemical barometer will appear in due course.

1298 H.K.M.R., Holur—We have no book on paper manufacture. For a book on paper manufacture enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

1300 J.R., Transvaal—For jeweller's tools enquire of Hamilton & Co. Ltd., 8, Old Court House Street, Calcutta and Jem & Co., 10, Old Court House Street, Calcutta. Please write early what particular formula you want when we shall supply the formula.

1301 K.S.N., Moyal Camp—For electrode making machine enquire of Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road and Francis & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both Calcutta.

1303 G.S., Amritsar—To make artificial teeth grind felspar and quartz to an impalpable powder together with a certain amount of kaolin. Then make the mixture into a thick paste with water and tint in a variety of colours by means of titanium dioxide or by the use of salts of cobalt, uranium, manganese, etc. Next press the paste in moulds in which are inserted platinum pins. Then burn the teeth in saggers until well vitrified at a temperature of about 48°C. firing required. They are then covered with an enamel made of the same materials as the body of the tooth, but mixed in slightly different proportions.

1309 G.C.T.C., Allahabad—All the ingredients may be had of Banshidhar Dutt, 126, Bengurapatty Street, Calcutta. Process of mirror making will be found in Small Industries published from this office, price Re. 1/8/- including postage. For hair clip making machine enquire of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta and Baird Machinery Co., Bridgeport, Connecticut, U.S.A.

1311 H.S.O.M., Ambala City—Soap making equipments may be had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta. Soap materials may be had of Calcutta Mineral Supply Co. Ltd., 31, Jackson Lane, Calcutta.

1312 G.R.S.I., Bhiwani—Addresses of Glass Manufacturers Association and Rubber Manufacturers Association are not known.

1316 N.J.V., Murtazapur—You may start manufacture of penholders and foot rules, etc. at Rs. 5,000/- to Rs. 10,000/-. You may start manufacture of fountain pen ink with Rs. 500/- at a very small scale. A recipe of scorpion bite cure will appear in due course.

had of Small Machineries Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road, Calcutta.

1320 S., Lucknow—Leather colouring and polishing process will appear in due course.

1324 K.R.D., Munda—Process of storage battery manufacture and motor body polish appears elsewhere in this issue.

1325 S.R., Babathsingala—If you distill the toddy you may preserve it in bottles.

1326 Q.M.A., Hinganghat—Glass eyes for preserved dead animals may be had of P. Basak & Co., 9, Chidam Modi Lane, Calcutta.

1329 U.S.J., Jodhpur—For bleaching oil you have to use animal charcoal which should be 5 to 10 per cent. according to the quality of the oil. Sajji is used for bleaching oil.

1330 M. P. G., Dhampur — For taking agency of kerosene oil and other oils you may negotiate with the following firms: Adamji Lookmanji & Co., 35, Babu Khote Street, Null Bazar, Bombay; Dadar Kerosene Depot, Palaji Mansion, Vincent Road, Bombay and Harbox Gopiram, 26, Burtolla Street, Calcutta.

1334 P.K., Kumabakonam — Formula of distemper appeared in March, 1951, issue of Industry.

1335 K.M.T.F., Mahim — For tile making machines enquire of Martin Burn Ltd., 12, Mission Row, Calcutta, and Marshall Sons & Co. Ltd., 99, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta. Process of manufacturing improved tiles appears elsewhere in this issue.

1336 S.K.G., Raigarh—You may negotiate with the following firms for taking agency: Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 164, Manicktala Main Road; Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 35, Pandit Road and Bengal Immunity Co. Ltd., 153, Dharamtala Street, all of Calcutta.

1337 B.L.T., Ambala Cantt.—Formulas of copper sulphate, magnesium sulphate, etc. appears elsewhere in this issue.

1338 S., Lucknow—For cycle seat leather you should use stiff leather of the type of saddle leather.

1341 U.C., Jamnagar — In manufacturing ayurvedic preparations you should always use genuine herbs and drugs and in no case substitutes should be used. Raw materials will be available from dealers in indigenous herbs and drugs. You should always use attractive labels and packing should be done very carefully and artistically. As regards publicity you may advertise in newspapers and periodicals and also distribute handbills and placards in the towns where you have agents or representatives. You may appoint agents in big towns of India, viz: at Delhi, Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. These agents should be given power to appoint sub-agents who will work in co-operation with the agents.

1342 R.G.S., Agra — Envelope making machine may be had of Oriental Machinery Supplying Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta. As regards paper you may buy from market.

1343 G.C.T.S., Allahabad — There is no arrangement for giving practical training on

1945 V.K.B., Singanailur—Citric acid B. P.
 pure citric acid manufactured by British
 Pharmacopoea Process and Standardised.

1348 S.B., Delhi.—For gunny bags enquire
: the following firms: Bholaram Matlal
: Cotton Street; Calcutta Hesslam Exchange,
: 3-2, Netaji Subhas Road; Das Brothers, 29,
: Strand Road, and Fool Chand Sarawgie, Clive
: Row; all of Calcutta.

1349 M.N.H. Mysore—Formulas you want
will be found in Small Industries published
from this office, price Re. 1/8/- including
postage.

1353 N.S., Kanpur — We have no book on water proofing canvas and rolling mill industry process will appear in due course.

1355 G.M.S.C., Gwalior — For ball bearing machines enquire of the following firms: J. Keen Williams Ltd., Construction House, Ballard Estate, Bombay; Healy Gresham Ltd., 1, Forbes Street, Fort, Bombay; M. H. Dinshaw & Co., 105-106, Apollo Street, Bombay; Mather & Platt Ltd., Bruce Street, Fort, Bombay; Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, Calcutta; Balmer Lawrie & Co. Ltd., 103, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta; Marshall Sons & Co. Ltd., 99, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta; Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place, Calcutta and Martin Burn Ltd., 12, Mission Row, Calcutta.

1357 D.R.K., Jullundur City — Industry is the only journal of its kind in India. There is no other journal like Industry.

1358 R.I.W., Akim Swedru Present where-
about of Lahore University is not available.

1359 T.T.W.C., Allahabad -- You may consult Manufacture of Toilet Goods published from this office, price Rs. 4/9/- including postage. For books on radio enquire of Thacker Spink & Co. (1933) Ltd., 3, Esplanade East, Calcutta.

Calcutta.
1360 S.T., Raipur — Process of mirror making will be found in April, 1950, issue of Industry.

Industry. 1361 J.C., Kanpur—We are not aware of any hypnotist or mesmerist who will teach you hypnotism and mesmerism practically.

1362 S.P.C., Singapore—You should communicate direct with the querist care of Industry when your letter will be duly redirected.

1363 H.L.B., Agra—Following is a list of
bristle merchants: Jai Bharat Brush Co., 278,
Soparibang Road, Parel, Bombay; Indian Brist-
les & Lard Supply Co., 31-1, Tangra Road,
Calcutta; S. Mazumdar, 67B, Netaji Subhas
Road, Calcutta and Volkart Bros., Armenian St.,
Madras. Process of bleaching bristle will
appear in due course.

1364 I.A., Colombo.—Bottles may be had of Bimal Bottle Stores, 130, Radha Bazar Street; Radha Bazar Bottle Stores, 15, Radha Bazar Lane and S. P. Singha & Co., 4, Ezra Street; all of Calcutta. Labels may be had of N. D. & Co., 1, Bhim Ghose Bye Lane, Calcutta and Bharat Laxmi Press, 92, Princess Street, Calcutta.

Calcutta.
1365 N.D., Srimangal — Lozenge making
machines may be had of Small Machineries
Mfg. Co., 22, R. G. Kar Road. Calcutta.

1369 S.L.B., Calcutta — Manufacture of wood screw on small scale will not be very profitable. Machines may be had of Alfred Herbert (India) Ltd., 13/3, Strand Road, and Francis Klein & Co. Ltd., 1, Royal Exchange Place; both of Calcutta. As regards raw materials you have to secure from second hand dealers.

1370 A.A.N, Vellore Process of utilising used storage battery plates will appear in due course.

1380. M.W.L. Aijal—Shoe making tools may be had of A. C. Mohamad, A. C. House, P16, Bentuck Street, Calcutta. Plywood may be had of Hindusthan Corporation, 29, Strand Rd., Calcutta and Khaitan Sons & Co. Ltd., 2, Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta. Rickshaws may be had of Bengal Cycle Rickshaw Works, 13, Surul East Road and H. D. Nundy & Co., 50 6, Bharamatla Street; both of Calcutta. Carpenter's tools may be had of Bengal Hardware Store, 165, Chandney Chowk; Calcutta Hardware Store, 137, 138, Chandney Chowk, Calcutta and Imperial Hardware & Co 186, Chandney Chowk, Calcutta. Enamel may be had of Sur Enamel & Stamping Works Ltd., 9, Middle Road, Entally, Calcutta and Calcutta Tin Can & Enamel Works, 72, Tiljala Road, Calcutta.

1383 R.K.T., Bhagwananagar -Refer your query to Homoeopathy State Faculty, West Bengal, 1B, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.

1386 M.A., Madras. We do not understand what you mean by ball point ink. If possible please supply sample of the ink when we shall try to supply you the formula.

1389 L.M. Bhawanmandi Tin plate is manufactured by Tinplate Co. of India Ltd., Jesselpur, Bihar. Following is a list of paper manufacturers: Bengal Paper Mills Co. Ltd., 21, Nangi Subbas Road, India Paper Pulp Co. Ltd., 8, Chive Row, and Filaghar Paper Mills, Cantonment Bank Bldg., all of Calcutta. Matches are manufactured by Brahmaputra Match Works Ltd., 19, Buntolli Street; Esavi India Match Mfg. Co., 17, Mantripukur Road; Hukari Match Co., 179A, Bellaghata Main Road and Western India Match Co. Ltd., Alamabazar, all of Calcutta.

139; K.M.S., 3, Victoria Court, For sakumoniak bars and tablets, enquire of Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works Ltd., 161, Manikpala Main Road, Calcutta Chemical Co. Ltd., 35, Pandita Road, Ballyrango, both of Calcutta.

1395 D.C.B., Ahmedabad - We have no book on envelope manufacture. Envelope making machines may be had of Oriental Machinery Supply Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Extension, Calcutta.

1396 H.H.J. Vankamer Process of manufacturing scented bathnut chips will appear in due course.

1397 Y.V., Netlore For chemical plants
enquire of Chemical Plants & Equipment Ltd.,
7, Lower Chitpur Road, Calcutta. For Japanese
machines enquire of Oriental Machinery Sub-
sidiary Agency Ltd., P12, Mission Row Exter-
sion, Calcutta.

—REVIEW OF BOOKS

HOW TO CHART TIME STUDY DATA by H. L. Carrol. Published by Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, Inc. New York. Pages 322, price \$ 5-0.

The value of collecting and marshalling time study data as handy tools towards achieving reduction of costs of production, improvements in techniques of production, etc. has been long understood in the industrial countries of the world. It has been found that investments in time study incentive in manufacturing do pay in the long run and can help improving employee satisfaction, production costs, deliveries and profits, which make the essential elements of success in competition.

To derive the best benefit from these data it is usual to make charts and tables. The book under review makes a systematic approach to the fundamentals and methods of charting time study data and attempts to explain the methods of setting them up in various forms for the quick and correct solution of various problems of business that arise during the daily course of transactions.

The book urges the compilation and application of standard data method in making time study, as the recorded standards are said to give many advantages over those obtained by direct time. Moreover these are said to be impersonal, more correct and ageless. The book also studies how the time study methods can be improved and the forms of standard data can be constructed to secure speed and accuracy. It commonly used forms of working data, e.g., curve drawing, time equations, alignment charts, monograph, multi-variable charts, curvilinearly—have been fully discussed in the book with numerous graphs and worked out examples. Detailed methods of their construction and plotting points have also been provided step by step in the book. How these can be used to analyse element data and to determine relationships between variables of time and mensural factors has been thoroughly dealt with in the book. The reading of these curves and converting them into tables also require care and in this respect also the book will make most helpful guide.

Each of the above six forms of data presentation has both advantages and disadvantages inherent in it but the author's personal preference however happens to be the multi-variable form expressed in numbers. But at the same time the author indicates that one method in charting cannot be the best. Relative merits are too important to be disregarded. Hence choice of the form that most nearly fits specific conditions at the time of application will be necessary.

The book covers a wide range in time study and will be immensely helpful to all those who desire to make any use of time study data for the general improvement of their processes in business. In India this subject should

ROLE OF PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN INDIA—IN RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT. Published by the Secretary, Employers' Association, 15, Park Street, Calcutta 16. Price Rs. 1.

The pamphlet under review traces out the changes that have occurred in the industrial structure of India during the last few years. It shows that in 20 years India has changed from a wholly agricultural economy to an agricultural cum industrial economy. The pamphlet discusses the subject under the following heads: Growth of joint stock principle from 1900 onwards, development and progress of industrial joint stock companies since 1930, volume of capital employed in Indian industries, availability of capital development of credit institutions, installed capacity and production in various industries like textiles, steel, paper, sugar, cement, tea, etc., foreign capital in India, etc., etc. It will be seen from the survey that Indian enterprise is now broadening its base in several directions. The booklet makes interesting reading and the facts revealed by it should be taken into account in making any scheme for the industrial uplift of the country.

NOTICES & REVIEWS

(Manufacturers sending specimens and samples of their products for notice and review may please note that no notice is published of medical preparations and allied substances in this section.)

VERMILION

We have the pleasure to receive a packet of "Satiprava Sindur" manufactured by Indian Vermilion Manufacturing Co., 16/1, Nandalal Bose Lane, Calcutta 3. The preparation is found to be of superior quality.

FOUNTAIN PEN INK

We have received from Hindusthan Small Industries, 29, Manicktala Main Road, Calcutta, one phial of "Royal Blue" fountain pen ink, which is found to be good.

TRADE ENQUIRIES

(To communicate with any party write to him direct with name and address given below mentioning Industry.)

1128 N. Patnaik, The Aryakala Nilay, Kuchuri, Puri—Wants to be put in touch with the suppliers of Gastans.

1130 Gupta Trading Co., Kanungoyan St. Meerut—Want to be put in touch with the dealers in water colour, chalk pencils, scales, scissors, razors, locks, small brass tickets for cows, dogs,

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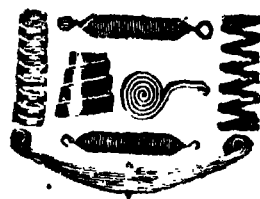
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INDUSTRY PUBLICATIONS

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